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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### CONFERENCE IN HONOR OF CHARLES H. JUDD

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago will hold a conference on April 15 and 16 in honor of the late Dr. Charles Hubbard Judd, head of the Department of Education from 1909 to 1938. On this occasion the Graduate Education Building will be formally named Charles Hubbard Judd Hall in recognition of Dr. Judd's outstanding leadership in education.

The theme of the session on April 15 will be "Contributions of Charles Hubbard Judd." Five papers will deal with the following aspects of his work: (1) the field of educational psychology, (2) educational surveys and administrative studies, (3) national leadership in education, (4) pioneering in the organization of graduate and professional study in education, and (5) developing plans for and procuring a building for the Graduate Department of Education.

On the evening of April 15 there will be a reception and dinner at Ida Noyes Hall, at which the speakers will be Chancellor Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago and Professor Charles E. Merriam, formerly head of the Department of Political Science.

On April 16 the general theme of the session will be "Graduate Study in the Field of Education," and the program will comprise six papers on the following topics: (1) a critique of research techniques in education, (2) new areas and techniques of research in education, (3) the role of laboratory schools in the scientific study of education, (4) relating professional and scientific study at the graduate level, (5) organization of graduate work in education within the University, and (6) the functions of graduate departments of education.

The program sessions of the conference will be held in Room 126 of the building which has been known as the Graduate Education Building.

## EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN JAPAN

THE postwar world has lost its glamour. In these days of two families in every garage, people around the world living on a semi-starvation basis, and little good will among nations, we have fallen a long way short of our hoped-for "brave new world." Those hopes reached their peak in 1941, when Roosevelt and Churchill proclaimed the Atlantic Charter, which set forth a clear goal for the warring democracies. Freedom from want, freedom of thought, freedom from the consequences of the faults in our political and economic machinery seem little closer today than when the Atlantic Charter was announced. Amid the growing disillusionment that attends the postwar failure to establish healthy international relations and the absence of progress toward democracy within most countries, there is one bright spot in the world picture which is far too often overlooked. This spot, where the objectives of the Atlantic Charter are gradually being approached, is Japan.

Japan has had a totalitarian, militaristic social system, in which each person's place was fixed for him largely by the accident of birth into a high or low-caste family. The problem is to replace this system by a democratic nation, in which each person can rise in proportion to his ability and each person's thought is expected to play a part in the democratic formation of national policy.

No step in the reconstruction of Japan is of more importance than the

modification of the school system to conform to the new objectives of the state. Rarely has any nation or any section of a nation undertaken so drastic a program to revise an educational system in so short a time. Probably the largest educational reconstruction program of modern times is that now being undertaken by the Japanese educators with the assistance of occupation headquarters. That this program is being undertaken by a conquered people, with only limited assistance from a few American educators, makes its achievements to date the more remarkable.

A handful of American specialists in fields ranging from physical education to elementary textbooks are laboring to provide the Japanese with the professional leadership required to expand, revitalize, and rebuild the educational system into a modern and democratic form.

In many ways the Japanese schools have long been highly effective. Compulsory education through about Grade VI, a well-developed system of public kindergartens, competent universities, and a high rate of literacy—all point to Japanese interest and ability in the field of education. Under the pre-war and wartime regimes, however, all the most autocratic features of the Japanese culture were emphasized and reinforced by the schools. As in most totalitarian countries, all school subjects were pointed to serve the state. History, physical education, language, and even guidance were directed toward building young people

who could serve in the Japanese war machine or in attendant industries. The Japanese culture has always emphasized conformity and docility, which are ingrained in its patriarchal tradition and its former political system. With the coming of the occupation and the introduction of a democratic constitution, it has been necessary to shake the Japanese system to its roots in order to provide the citizens needed in the new Japanese state.

Some of the changes envisioned in the reorganization now being made may be taken from a report of the Japanese Educational Reform Committee dated December 27, 1946. The first change is the acceptance of a new philosophy of education—a philosophy worth wide acclaim:

The object of education consists in the expectation of educating a wholesome nation in mind and body as the formative individuals of a democratic and peaceful state and society who are addicted to truth and justice, hold the dignity of the person in reverence and have a regard for labor and co-operation—all these having in view the enlightenment of human nature.

The object of education should be realized throughout all places on all occasions. For the realization of this object efforts ought to be devoted to nurturing the autonomy and spontaneous spirit of the individual in education and making him contribute to the creation and development of culture by virtue of respect and affection and collaboration with others.

Among the specific reforms is the establishment of a middle school, equivalent to the American junior high school. It is planned that the middle school will be compulsory as

soon as building and economic conditions permit. Equality of opportunity will be promoted by making the middle school a free public institution. Formerly education beyond Grade VI was available only to a privileged minority. Coeducation is being introduced throughout the educational system, although it is not compulsory at the higher levels. Whereas formerly vocational education was the primary emphasis in the education for adolescents through full-time and part-time schools, a considerable extension of general education is now planned. Teacher education and the structure and supervision of private education are also undergoing scrutiny and modification.

Among the most significant changes in Japan is the extension of opportunity for higher education on a more democratic basis. Formerly admission to higher education required the passing of a severe entrance examination. Only small proportions of the qualified applicants were admitted, and even these applicants were drawn almost exclusively from the higher economic and aristocratic levels. Admission was based on school marks, on a principal's recommendation strongly influenced by the prestige of the family, and an oral examination. The oral examination paid great attention to those virtues of character most important in Japan, to evidences of "good breeding," and to the "right" political thought. It is recognized in postwar Japan that a large amount of high-grade intelligence is going to waste be-

cause of the lack of educational opportunities for children from the lower classes. Because it is realized that those most economically privileged may not have the most to contribute to the new Japan, serious efforts are being made to expand the facilities for higher education and to make those facilities available to the best applicants.

For this reason, a nation-wide competitive examination was instituted in March, 1947. This examination, prepared by Japanese psychologists under the guidance of American specialists, was essentially a high-level intelligence test. Admission to higher schools is also based on the student's previous school record, and no doubt this factor still gives a considerable advantage to those young people who have been given superior education. Nevertheless, the new examination is a long step toward making sure that admission to college is not dependent on the mere mastery of a large amount of formal subject matter. Instead, an effort is being made to encourage and develop youth of superior ability.

New textbooks are being written for Japanese schools to replace the older textbooks with their fallacious emphases on myths that the Japanese rulers wished to encourage. New textbooks for teacher training are appearing under the guidance of American specialists. Y. Isaka of the Ministry of Education produced in 1947 a new textbook on child development, based on the most recent American points of view.

Guidance and mental hygiene are

of primary concern to the Japanese. There is in the schools wide allegiance to the principle of personality and character development, which has always been a strong Japanese emphasis. The Japanese are anxious to learn newer methods of working with children, but the teachers are almost entirely untrained in methods of studying and of helping children. They tend to stress a list of virtues which is strikingly Japanese in flavor. A guidance manual, for instance, lists these emotional characteristics as worthy of attention: whether the pupil is capricious and easily excited, whether he perseveres, whether the pupil behaves himself deliberately, whether the child is quick in making decisions or is irresolute, whether the child is faithful to his duties and obeys the orders of his seniors. Whether the child is happy and whether he has initiative and confidence in his own ideas are given little emphasis. This merely implies that it is taking the Japanese a long time to throw off the point of view of centuries. They are eager to learn new ideas and new ways of working, and they are modifying their techniques as rapidly as they can.

The writer had the opportunity of assisting as a consultant for two months during 1947, working primarily with Japanese psychologists on problems of child development and testing. The general impression gained from this hasty overview of the changes taking place is briefly described below. Progress is exceedingly slow because of the difficulty of changing the teaching methods of a teacher



who has long fitted into a rigid and authoritarian system. Moreover, it is difficult to present clearly the point of view of the newer educational philosophy, which does not yield specific directives to be followed but rather calls for a maximum of initiative on the part of all educators. In Japan the ability to exercise initiative is rarely found; for everyone has learned that it is important and desirable to carry out the ideas of his superiors. The teachers wait for the ministry in Tokyo to take the lead. The ministry is anxious to find out what ideas the Americans want them to have before they take a stand. Because occupation headquarters have been aware of this difficulty, they have refrained from taking leadership wherever the Japanese could be encouraged to do so. Under these circumstances the Japanese are gradually developing and expressing their own opinions and will, in the course of time, stand on their own feet. The problems of encouraging local initiative lie in tradition, in the lack of training of local people, and in the fantastic difficulties of communication in postwar Japan. The paper shortage, the destruction of school buildings, the lack of food, and all the other social problems of the nation are impeding educational reconstruction. In the face of this situation the Japanese have drafted and passed fundamental school laws, have introduced new textbooks, and have drafted new courses of study. They have instituted training courses for teachers and, in every way, are bending their

energies toward attaining their educational goal.

Upon returning from Japan and attempting to describe some of the problems which impede the development of an education truly suited to Japanese youth, the writer has encountered one inevitable reaction: "What you are saying is not new. Those are the difficulties that impede *American* education." And that seems to be true. The President's Commission on Higher Education points to our failure to provide higher education for many of our most able youth. The psychologist views with alarm the stress that our schools place on conformity rather than on purposeful self-direction. The field worker laments the inertia in teachers, who follow older methods rather than inventing new ones to fit each group of learners. With all these faults, American education looks good after a view of Japan's former system. It is a close approximation to the truth to say that Japan's schools are now where America's were in 1925. At that point Japan stopped the clock. The striking differences between the nations show how far we have come in twenty years of self-criticism and development. The similarities between the nations show how far both nations have yet to go.

#### NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN TESTING AND GUIDANCE

THE year 1947 was a fruitful one for persons who are interested in the development of testing and its possible application to guidance.

*Testing in the services* During the year four reports were published, giving at last a complete account of wartime advances in psychological testing. For the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs of the American Council on Education, Frederick B. Davis produced *Utilizing Human Talent*, a general report on armed services selection and classification procedures. Volumes of the "Army Air Forces Aviation Psychology Program Research Reports" are coming off the press steadily and may be obtained from the Government Printing Office. Two reports of particular interest are *The Classification Program*, edited by P. H. DuBois, and *Printed Classification Tests*, edited by J. P. Guilford, with the assistance of John I. Lacey. Still another volume deals with the work of the Bureau of Naval Personnel. This volume, edited by Dewey B. Stuit and published by Princeton University Press, bears the title *Personnel Research and Test Development in the Bureau of Naval Personnel*.

A more general collection of opinions and overviews of wartime programs is the volume *New Methods in Applied Psychology*, edited by George A. Kelly and published by the University of Maryland. This book presents a series of papers given at a conference held in 1945. The papers describe the principal findings of all branches of the armed services and of the wartime civilian research program.

The educational reader will be im-

pressed, first of all, by the tremendous diversity of testing techniques used by the armed services. In contrast to the public schools, which give the average student two or three tests to help in planning his course of study, the armed services experimented with hundreds of testing techniques. Frequently it was found that many tests were needed to make adequate judgment about men even for a single type of duty. Guilford's volume, for example, reports experiments with more than a hundred tests, each of which measured a somewhat different psychological function of importance in air-crew selection. Even this list is incomplete, for many other tests remain to be reported in subsequent volumes.

Nor were these tests mere laboratory playthings; no less than twenty of them were actually combined as a basis for predicting which men should enter such specialties as fighter pilot or radio operator-mechanic. Since so vast an array of information was required for accurate mass predictions about men—let alone, precise individual placement—and since these predictions were used only in the limited setting of air-crew duties, it is apparent that there is much to be done before vocational guidance in the public schools can approach a reasonable level of effectiveness.

In the complex findings of the many research studies, there is danger of losing one's self. It is, therefore, helpful to have Davis' clear and challenging generalizations in his *Utilizing Human Talent*:

1. Men and women of exceptional and specialized talent can be identified and trained.

2. Effective educational and vocational guidance can be provided for students in schools and colleges.

3. Tests of aptitudes required for success in various educational and vocational fields can be made available.

4. Combinations of highly specialized aptitude tests are more effective for purposes of educational and vocational guidance than tests of general intelligence or general learning ability.

5. A test of fundamental academic aptitudes can be useful in educational guidance.

6. A test of differential aptitudes and interests can be useful in vocational guidance.

7. Subjective evaluation of empirical data appears to add little or nothing to the accuracy with which personnel can be selected on the basis of suitable objective tests.

8. The number of separate mental abilities that can be measured is very large.

It must be recognized that the armed forces, like the schools, have not solved the problem of predicting success in life's situations. Instead, nearly all the research during the war dealt with predictions of success in training courses. Identifying the aptitudes which make for success on the job, whether in combat or in business, is likely to be even more difficult. One can only conclude from these data that the problems of testing and guidance are almost infinitely complex and that the methods now in use in even the most elaborate guidance program have only scratched the surface.

One of the most challenging types of work during the war was the effort to assess the whole personality by observing a man in a new situation. The

success of these methods when they were tried under competent personnel indicates that Davis' seventh conclusion based on the work in the armed services may be too pessimistic. The most striking attempt to evaluate personality as a whole is the work of H. A. Murray and his associates for the Office of Strategic Services, reported in Kelly's volume.

Owing to the hazardous and vital responsibilities which men in the "cloak-and-dagger" service had to perform, it was especially important to eliminate all candidates who were poor risks on the basis either of aptitude or of temperament. The investigators employed a striking variety of testing techniques, few of which represented the conventional measurement approach. Trained observers studied each person in a wide variety of situations: while he was directing a group of men in crossing a bridge under simulated fire, while he was participating in a discussion of postwar problems, and while acting out a role in a short playlet about some conflict. The observers studied each person for three days before making a complete assessment of the way in which he functioned in different situations. From this information they were able to place men in assignments with considerable success. Murray reports that only one man out of three hundred was returned from duty for neuropsychiatric reasons, despite the strain to which O.S.S. operatives were subjected.

The fruitfulness of these techniques

suggests that here is a new philosophy of guidance which will perhaps be more flexible than measurement and factor analysis. Moreover, if three days' observation gave Murray an understanding of the dynamics of each man's personality, there is great hope that an equal amount of attention to the ordinary behavior of the student in the many activities of school life will give far more insight about his nature than teachers and counselors now have.

*New tests of promise* Amid the numerous psychological and educational tests produced in the past year, two seem likely to be of outstanding significance. One is the Differential Aptitudes Test by Bennett, Seashore, and Wesman, published by the Psychological Corporation. The sections of the test are aimed specifically at the guidance needs of secondary schools and, for the first time, provide an integrated battery measuring several significant aptitudes. The tests avoid the temptation to break mental abilities into so many subdivisions that the individual measures are of doubtful meaning and reliability, but they provide sufficient information about different aspects of development to be of considerable value in guidance.

The eight sections of the test measure verbal reasoning, numerical ability, abstract reasoning, space relations, mechanical reasoning, clerical speed and accuracy, spelling, and grammar. The tests themselves are

not novel; their unique feature is that the entire battery is standardized on the same group and therefore yields usable profiles. Evidence on the validity of the test will presumably be reported as soon as possible.

The second promising new test is a measure of reading ability. The instrument, bearing the name of the Diagnostic Reading Tests, was prepared by a committee of specialists in reading and is to be distributed by the Educational Records Bureau (437 West Fifty-ninth Street, New York 19, New York). The test is divided into two major sections: a survey section and a diagnostic section. The survey test is apparently comparable to most group tests now available. The diagnostic section includes a vocabulary test, which provides five separate scores: general vocabulary, vocabulary of English grammar and literature, vocabulary of mathematics, vocabulary of science, and vocabulary of social studies. The comprehension section yields two scores: one for silent reading and the other for auditory comprehension. A third section of the test measures rate of reading separately for story-type material, social studies, and science materials. Section four of the diagnostic test measures ability to attack and recognize words.

This set of tests differs from previous group diagnostic tests in that it produces scores which should be directly useful in planning remedial and developmental reading programs. In previous tests the diagnostic scores have usually been inadequate, either

in reliability or in usefulness. While many sections of the new tests have not yet been issued, and therefore cannot be examined, the composition of the committee producing the tests is, in itself, a guaranty that good judgment has been used in their design. The members of the committee include Robert M. Bear, of Dartmouth College; Ivan A. Booker, of the National Education Association; Daniel D. Feder, of the University of Denver; Constance M. McCullough, of Western Reserve University; A. Eason Monroe, of Pennsylvania State College; George D. Spache, of Chappaqua (New York) public schools; and Arthur E. Traxler and Frances Orland Triggs (chairman), of the Educational Records Bureau.

*Problems of children* As rich a resource for the school library as has appeared in many years is the new *Handbook of Child Guidance*, edited by Ernest Harms and published by Child Care Publications, New York City. The encyclopedia consists of dozens of separate articles by leading authorities, covering various aspects of child guidance. The goal, in the words of the editor, is to present the information needed "to preserve the inborn, innate sanity of our youth through a broad program of educational and cultural development."

As would be expected, the articles deal with many aspects of guidance, touching on the mental hygiene of both the normal and the abnormal child. Teachers will wish to refer to

specific articles such as "Delinquency and Guidance" by Jacob Panken, "The Guidance Problems of Negro Youth" by Charles S. Johnson, and "Guidance of the Superior Child and the Prodigy" by Ernest Harms. In addition, there are general articles on problems of kindergartens, secondary schools, psychiatry, guidance in religious groups, and similarly varied topics. If this volume is available in the school library, it is certain that teachers who become acquainted with it will find more and more occasion to consult its wealth of information.

#### PERSONAL NEEDS AND VALUES

WITH increasing emphasis on child development as a problem of interest to teachers and with more and more teachers attempting to apply clinical points of view in their daily work, a large number of workers in education are concerned with new research and diagnostic techniques as they emerge. Among the impressive methods which have attracted attention in the last year or so is the method of value analysis. One application of the technique is described in a bulletin by Virginia F. Cutler entitled *Personal and Family Values in the Choice of a Home* (Cornell University Agricultural Experimental Station Bulletin 840, November, 1947). In her study the author related individual values to the housing conditions under which the persons live. An investigation of this type relating personal needs to living conditions is especially important for



secondary-school teachers in the fields of home economics and social studies.

*Analysis of autobiography* Another more technical study in value analysis will be of interest to social-studies teachers, counselors, and persons concerned with intergroup education. This investigation, made by Ralph K. White, is a method for studying personal documents. The document, usually a fairly lengthy sample of material written by the subject, is analyzed by a careful quantitative tabulation. Particular attention is paid to emotional expression, evaluation, and characterization of people to whom the writer refers. The method is most clearly exemplified in a report, "Black Boy: A Value Analysis," published in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* for October, 1947.

White comes to the conclusion that Richard Wright, author of *Black Boy*, the book which was analyzed, has clearly revealed his personality in this autobiography. The personality revealed is not entirely consistent with the picture that Wright attempts to give of himself. Wright is found to be belligerent, and it is believed, in view of the analysis, that the belligerence is the result of anxiety and fear. Wright is found to be not a Negro closely identified with Negroes but a solitary person who may actually reject others of his race.

White's technique has implications, not only for those persons in educational research who will use it as a

method of understanding more about pupils, writers, and the like, but also for the classroom itself. Surely students should be introduced to the concept that writers reveal their own personalities in what they write; and it may help them to a far deeper insight into current political issues if they can relate the viewpoints taken by controversial writers to the writers' own personal needs. It would be an interesting experiment for a social-studies teacher or an English teacher to introduce students to the value-analysis technique as a means of studying literature about social problems.

*Values in textbooks* Still another exploration of the application of the techniques of social psychology to education is a monograph, *Children's Textbooks and Personality Development*, by Irvin L. Child and others (Psychological Monographs, No. 279, American Psychological Association, 1946). This report examines a question about which educators should long have been concerned: What sort of character are we inducing in our children through the models presented by school readers and other textbooks? While educators have long been aware of this question, there has been a distinct lack of systematic methods for analysis. The present investigators studied hundreds of stories appearing in third-grade readers. Attention was given to the way in which each character be-

haved and to the consequences of the behavior:

It is assumed that when a sequence of behavior is shown as leading to reward, the effect will be to increase the likelihood of a child's behaving in that way under similar conditions in the future.

Some striking conclusions are drawn about what we are doing to children, whether we intend to or not. For instance, it was found that effortful ways of acquiring things are the most frequently rewarded, according to the stories in readers. In general, the rewards in stories go to the heroes who achieve results with the greatest amount of work; the stories seem to be on the side of the ant rather than that of the grasshopper. One may well question whether this slant is not producing in some children, who readily accept the values of the adult culture, a neurotic emphasis on work for work's sake rather than an attitude that work should be warranted by intelligently conceived purposes. Teachers and writers should flinch at the implication of the following findings:

Despite the emphasis on learning, there is in these third-grade readers little encouragement of intellectual activity as such. The cognizance [recognition] is usually directed at simple isolated information rather than a quest for understanding. [The readers are] . . . rarely concerned with aesthetic appreciation which goes beyond the admiration of simple man-made objects or of nature. Activity is ordinarily physical, and in only one case intellectual in nature.

The writers also conclude that a major defect of the readers is what might be called "unrealistic opti-

mism." Behavior which is fundamentally submissive or protective is almost always rewarded. It is doubtful whether such a fairy-tale existence in their story life prepares children for adjustment to real problems. The stories on competition noticeably dealt with the child who wins in competition, giving no reassurance or assistance to the child who is experiencing emotional conflicts because he failed in competition. Again, no help was given to the child who feels a need for aggression, which is, of course, disapproved. Many more detailed findings of this pioneer monograph might well be taken to heart by elementary-school teachers.

For secondary-school teachers there are similar questions to be answered, although no study at this level has been made. If we were to look at the history books, the novels, the encyclopedias, the motion pictures, and all the other paraphernalia used to indoctrinate adolescents, what message would we find being presented? Do we stress certain values? Do we unconsciously teach that unrealistic ways of behavior will win reward, even as in the days of Horatio Alger? What happens to the hero in the social-science "stories"—real though they may be—as he meets the problems of marriage, free enterprise, or politics? Do our reading materials fill pupils with a view of life as it is, a view of life as it should be, or a view of life as it never was? Here is a field for research, but, in the absence of research, teachers may well begin to open their eyes to

the materials that they themselves use.

#### CROSS-COUNTRY TOUR

A PILE of journals from state education associations and other sources coming across the desk permits one, from an armchair, to make a rapid survey of what is concerning educators from coast to coast.

*Salaries of professors* In West Virginia, one of the problems seems to be college salaries, according to an article by Roy C. Woods, professor of education at Marshall College, published by the *West Virginia School Journal*. Woods claims that his concern is not with the welfare of the professors, because they can go elsewhere. Rather he is concerned with the welfare of West Virginia youth, "because they are at the mercies of the adult leadership of our state." A comparison of West Virginia salaries with those of instructors in colleges elsewhere shows striking differences. In 1944 the median salary for professors in West Virginia was \$2,900, compared with a pre-war median elsewhere of \$3,800, and salaries generally have risen since that time. Woods points to the consequences of inferior education, which leads youth to go out of the state for their education and deprives West Virginia of its best talent, since many of these young people remain out of the state.

*Schooling for adults* In New Jersey, according to the *New Jersey Educational Review*, the program of community adult schools has tripled in size in the past three

years. The total enrolment for the current year exceeds thirty-five thousand members. Small neighboring communities frequently act as sponsors for a single regional adult school. The programs cover a wide range of educational objectives appropriate for adults.

*Finances and salaries* The journal, *New York State Education*, indicates that a principal source of concern in New York is state financial aid. Governor Dewey has promised "millions more" in aid for poorer school districts. A drive for funds in New York is being headed by the State Teachers Association, with considerable support from lay groups. The schools are particularly handicapped by a tax-limitation law, which has been in effect for larger cities since 1884 and in smaller cities and villages since 1938. A study of the problem is being made by a committee representing the state comptroller's office.

A recent school law in New York State provides funds for increased salaries for teachers but sets up promotional levels to which teachers may be advanced upon evidence of superior teaching ability. Serious debate is heard about an adequate method of determining which teachers are entitled to the increments. Teachers are greatly concerned that standards shall give them a fair opportunity to qualify, since the increments, over and above the normal salary, range as high as \$1,350. At present, debate centers on the merit of emphasizing quantitative and observable evidence

as opposed to opinions of supervisors. While there is great merit in the suggestion that teachers be paid in proportion to the benefit they confer rather than in proportion to their age and length of service, the present indication is that the state will be unable to arrive at a satisfactory basis for evaluation of merit during the present school year. Teachers and administrators everywhere will, no doubt, be interested in the following comments by Francis T. Spaulding, state commissioner of education, regarding the difficulties encountered by the program:

The choice which the committee had to make was not between high salaries for all teachers and high salaries merely for selected teachers. That is not the choice which we, as a profession, face today. The choice was, and is, between no more than very modest salaries for anybody, and a plan under which we can and will give a chance for reasonably high salaries to those who most deserve them. . . . The committee proposed the experiment . . . because it believed that the plan of recognizing exceptional service would be (as indeed, it has been) almost universally accepted as sound in principle; because it was convinced that if such a plan could be put into effect it would help to attract and hold able teachers; because it was certain that the only way to put such a plan into effect was to try to put it into effect; and because the evidence which it had at hand suggested that there was a much better than even chance that the plan could be made to work. . . .

The promotional increment sections of the law do two very important things. First, they establish for the first time on a state-wide basis the principle that opportunities for promotion shall be provided for teachers *within the field of teaching*. Hitherto, the only promotions that most teachers have been able to gain have involved leaving their

teaching positions for administrative or supervisory work. . . .

Second, the promotional increment sections of the law *assure* teachers for the first time a substantial voice in establishing professional standards.

*The banning of books* At the end of this stack of cross-country samples of educational thought are two items from California. The Committee on Intellectual Freedom of the California Library Association has mobilized to combat public pressure for the removal of certain types of material from the schools. These columns have previously mentioned investigations by the state senate and various lay committees which have singled out for attack the *Building America* textbook series and Marguerite Stewart's book, *Land of the Soviets*. Funds for the purchase of some of these materials were eliminated from appropriation bills, and in some local communities effective pressure prevented schools from ordering the publications. In addition to the attack on dissemination of information about people in other countries, in some communities a vigorous fight by some laymen has prevented schools from purchasing books dealing with sex education. The committee of the California Library Association reports that counterpressure by the California Congress of Parents and Teachers, the League of Women Voters, and other groups has caused the defeat of bills which "would practically eliminate instruction in sex and marriage problems in the public schools and prohibit instruction in contro-

versial subjects and the use and distribution of propaganda materials." The fight is continuing.

In view of the fact that Japan has recently lost the war and that it is impossible to establish democracy there without overthrowing state Shintoism and the rule of the economic oligarchy, it is not surprising that General MacArthur's headquarters still finds it necessary to censor educational materials in Japan. California has not lost a war, and it is harder to understand how democracy can be promoted in that state by these efforts at thought control.

*Inferior facilities*      The *Sierra Educational News* returns to the familiar theme of economic difficulties in the school. For all of California's being a rich state, the journal of the California Teachers Association reports that many schools are being conducted in makeshift quarters, that some pupils shiver in

cold shacks and abandoned buildings and learn their lessons in basements. Last year 102,000 California pupils attended school only part of the day because of classroom overcrowding. It is estimated that \$345,000,000 would be needed to provide the additional classrooms needed. An average of 5,000 qualified teachers will be needed in each of the next eight years, but all teacher-training institutions in the state combined graduated only 1,500 students last year.

If there is one thing apparent from this coast-to-coast overview of current educational thinking, it is that all the states are concerned about the same things. Practically no problem discussed in one state is without its counterpart in other states. Teaching today has its problems, but they are clearly national problems. Educational problems can no longer be confined within state boundaries.

LEE J. CRONBACH



## WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by LEE J. CRONBACH, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago. SETH P. PHELPS, teacher in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, describes a high-school work camp, which was located in the Missouri Ozarks, and the community's reaction to the "visiting" boys and girls. HARL R. DOUGLASS, director of the College of Education at the University of Colorado, and LLOYD H. ELLIOTT, graduate assistant in the same institution, point out the opportunities for improvement and expansion which now exist for secondary education. STEPHEN ROMINE, director of the Bureau of High School Counseling and Accreditation at the University of Colorado, presents the results of a nation-wide study of trends in curriculum practices in secondary schools. A. E. MANLEY, dean of the College, and J. S. HIMES, JR., professor of sociology at North Carolina College at Durham, consider the problem of guidance in Negro secondary education. ROBERT E. JOHNSON, assistant professor in the School of Engineering and Architecture at the University of Kansas at Lawrence, discusses fine arts as a means of attaining personality integration. LOUIS F. BATMALE,

counselor at the Veterans Administration Guidance Center in the City College of San Francisco, California, reports a study of a group of veterans in San Francisco who were awarded high-school diplomas on the basis of test performance. HAROLD H. PUNKE, formerly a professor of education and now an industrial engineer in the employment of the federal government, maintains that an effective guidance worker must have a thorough understanding of the social philosophy of the society in which he lives. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of psychology at the University of Alabama, and GEORGE BROWN, graduate student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on the extra-curriculum.

*Reviewers of books* NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago. NANCY E. WIMMER, at present editor of periodical publications at Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois, and formerly teacher of mathematics at Taft High School in the same city. STEPHEN M. COREY, professor of educational psychology and director of the Audio-visual Instructional Materials Center at the University of Chicago.

## A COMMUNITY LOOKS AT A HIGH-SCHOOL WORK CAMP

SETH P. PHELPS

*University of Chicago*



THE caller shouted to be heard above the rhythmic shuffling, "stomping," and hand-clapping at a "play party":

First couple balance to the couple on the right,

Cheat or swing, do jest as you like.

*Swing yore partners!*

*Ladies to the right and a right hand accost;*

Look out girls so you don't get lost. . . .<sup>1</sup>

In the lantern light, few onlookers would have noticed, as the writer did, that some of the dancers were less skilled than others. Some of them were urban high-school boys and girls, a fact which made this play party a bit different from most others. Outsiders seldom have the privilege that had been extended to these youths. Before explaining how this happened, the writer would like you to acquire more of the flavor of this community in the Missouri Ozarks. It is:

A leisurely float [a trip on a raft, popular in this region] down the Current River, and

black-bass suppers on willow-screened sandbars. It is taleswapping in a woodland camp—and firelight and unhurried talk of friends—and wood smoke on the night air.<sup>2</sup>

### LOCATION OF THE CAMP

In this sparsely settled country one finds the thrift and hardihood of frontier life. The amusements of the people who dwell there are those that preceded commercial entertainment in the more densely populated urban centers of our country and are far more wholesome in many respects.

The high-school boys and girls mentioned were members of a high-school work camp—an American Friends Service Committee work camp, co-sponsored by the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. There were nineteen young people, representing many religions and races. The camp was located at Shannondale Community Center, Shannon County, Missouri. Shannon County is in the Ozark highlands and is often called the "Gateway to the Ozarks." These old, worn-down mountains are now heavily forested. The Community Center, 160 miles southwest of St. Louis, is under

<sup>1</sup> *Missouri: A Guide to the "Show Me" State*, p. 134. Compiled by Workers of the Writers' Program of the Work Projects Administration in the State of Missouri, American Guide Series. Sponsored by the Missouri State Highway Department. New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, 1941.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 10-11.

the direction of Reverend Vincent Bucher. It is sponsored by the Ozark Mission of the Evangelical and Reformed Church. For four years an American Friends Service Committee work camp has been located there.

About five miles from the Community Center is Barren Fork, a spring-fed river.

A road crosses this little river by a ford that was virtually unfordable. District Forester Lee Fine of the Conservation Commission found that out when, trying to get to a timber fire in his truck, he had to go fifty miles out of his way. That irritated Forester Fine; he learned it also irritated the people who were cut off from Highway 19, to the west, by that measly little creek. But fire protection demanded a crossing; so did the people. Then Lee Fine took his problem to a man who seems capable of solving problems: the Reverend Vincent Bucher.<sup>3</sup>

Reverend Bucher called on the Friends, and, as a result, nineteen teen-age campers of various races and religions came to Shannondale to help build a bridge. The work camp was to provide the labor gratis. As a matter of fact, each camper paid \$125 for the privilege of attending the work camp. The Conservation Commission provided the engineering, the machinery, and help in the technical supervision. Local farmers helped when they could take time from their farm work. By means of quilting, collections from church services, and donations from interested friends, the local area raised \$500 to cover the cost of materials, for the county had no funds for this work.

The result was a 175-foot, steel, reinforced concrete low-water bridge.

The work was slow. Barren Fork was diverted to permit work on the project, but water, being a fugitive element, seeped in through the gravel barriers. Under the painstaking supervision of Tom Chilton, of the State Conservation Commission, and the camp staff, the campers became efficient workers. The ford had not been entirely completed when the camp broke up, but the local people, with the help of members of a week-end work camp from the Evangelical and Reformed Church of St. Louis, finished it. Now the Conservation Commission can get in with fire-fighting equipment, and the people from over the river can get out.

The material benefits which earnest work-campers may bring to a community are noteworthy in themselves and are a means for promoting better understanding between people of widely different backgrounds. Of even greater significance is the firsthand education acquired by the campers through working and living with the people in a community. Their perspective is broadened in a fashion that cannot be duplicated in a classroom.<sup>4</sup> Thus, in a real sense, the co-operative efforts of the work-campers and the local citizens not only built a bridge of concrete but also spanned widely separated ways of life in this exchange of human relations.

<sup>3</sup> "Cooperation Builds a Bridge," *Missouri Conservationist*, VIII (August, 1947), 12.

<sup>4</sup> See Seth P. Phelps, "Students' Opinions of Work Camps," *School Review*, LV (April, 1947), 214-21.

## THE QUESTIONNAIRE

What did the local residents think about these young people? How did they feel about the work camp? A questionnaire was devised by the writer and, with the help of Reverend Bucher, was distributed to thirty-

ever, much of value would be lost if quotations from the questionnaires were omitted. As nearly as possible, the questionnaires were of a non-leading type, and signatures were not requested. Most, but not all, of the replies could have been "Yes" or "No."

TABLE 1  
REPLIES TO QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING WORK CAMP  
SENT TO THIRTY-TWO FAMILIES

QUESTION	NUMBER OF REPLIES			
	Favorable	Unfavorable	Do Not Know	No Reply
1. Have the work-campers helped much on project?...	32			
2. Would the project have been undertaken without help of work-campers this year? .....	32			
3. Would community welcome work camp next year?...	31		I	
4. Has the work camp made other contributions to community? .....	31		I	
5. How do you feel about relations between camp and community? .....	26		6	
6. Have you any comments to make on conduct of the campers? .....	19		9	4
7a. Are any of your friends opposed to the work camp?	29	3		
7b. Are you opposed to the work camp? .....	32			
8. Do you have any suggestions for improving effectiveness of the work camp? .....	31		I	
9. Has the work camp inspired the community to greater co-operative effort? .....	30	I		I
10. Do you understand some city youths better now? ..	29	3		
11. Do you feel that your young people should associate with the work-campers? .....	29	3		
12. Do you believe it is of any value to have Jews, Negroes, and Japanese in camp? .....	29	2	I	

two families in the area. Through interviews, the writer had personally collected a few questionnaires before he left the work camp. Altogether, thirty-two questionnaires were received. Their contents are both pertinent and interesting to educators who are looking for new tools in education.

Table 1 presents a tabulation of the responses to the questionnaires. How-

Many lengthy replies were received. Therefore, in order to give due weight to the replies, the results were tabulated as either "favorable" or "unfavorable" to the work camp. The questions have been briefed to accommodate them to the table.

The first four questions deal chiefly with the value of the work-campers to the project. It might be well to remind the reader that the campers were high-

school boys and girls, from fourteen to eighteen years of age, who had had little or no work experience. The jobs ranged from carrying water to digging with picks and shovels and handling wheelbarrows.

*Did they help much?*—The following reply best typifies the feelings of the majority of the people:

Their help meant us having a bridge. It was a great help.

*Would the bridge have been built without their help?*—The replies to this question were unanimous. One answer was:

I don't think so. The people of our community never have time to leave their own work and donate all of their time to a project. When the campers started it, they were willing and anxious to help when they could.

*A work camp next year?*—Quotations from the replies were as follows:

Yes.

Definitely.

Yes, I think the community would be for the work camp 100 per cent next year.

*Did the work camp help in any other way?*—This question elicited some interesting replies in which social-science teachers should be especially interested. The extent to which the work-campers permeated the life of the community is evident. The good will of the people in the community was nurtured by the willingness of the campers to help out wherever they were needed. The experience also brought the campers closer to the tempo and nature of the community and enhanced their understand-

ing of the community life. Some of the replies to this question follow:

Yes, some others worked around the community house and some helped farmers make hay, and a number of other projects were done over the community.

We are still burning wood they hauled and feeding hay they helped make, and being pleased with the orchard they helped prune.

Yes, they worked on the well house at Shannondale and helped neighbors with their haying. They also helped the community by giving programs that made the people more interested in the social events of the community.

Yes, their association with the rural boys and girls has given them a better understanding of each other.

It is apparent that the campers contributed much more than just labor to the lives of these people; they provided an adventure in human relations. Working together on a worthwhile project is an excellent way to break down barriers and to cement good will—a fact which the entire world needs to recognize, today more than ever before. Co-operative effort provides one real means for achieving a common goal.

*Camp-community relations.*—It was impressed upon the writer by a number of people from the community—people who are his friends—that the average city person, or tourist, is looked upon with scorn by these dignified people. Overnight invitations, extended by the citizens, were eagerly accepted by the writer, so that he might become better acquainted with them. Their hospitality was simple and sincere. What did they think of



these city-bred youth? How did they feel about the camp? Were the campers just outsiders who had come to help or had they gained stature as individuals?

The citizens made a few suggestions for improving the relations between the camp and the community, though most of the people thought the camp relations were satisfactory. A few thought the community should be told more about the work camp, in order to increase the appreciation of all the people of the community for the work camp. Most of the citizens seemed genuinely proud of the "kids" and wanted everyone to know it. None of those who returned questionnaires were personally opposed to the work camp, and only three knew people in the community who were opposed. They spoke scornfully of those people who "always had to have something to say."

The citizens praised the campers highly. In fact, it might not have been safe for anyone to speak disparagingly of the campers; for the older people had an almost parental feeling toward these city boys and girls. Although the people occasionally might look askance at something that a camper said or did, they assumed the attitude, "Don't you dare say anything against them!" The following quotations will illustrate the feelings of the citizens:

Everyone I've heard has spoken with much respect of the work camp.

We feel that work-campers should visit the people of the community more than

they did this year so we can get better acquainted.

They were very good. They [the work-campers] were easy to get acquainted with.

I had some of them in my home, and I think they are wonderful.

On the whole, beyond comment and what one might expect from any group of young people.

All remarks have been complimentary.

A very few have been questionable—but not intentional.

They conducted themselves very well. They acted just as any American from their section of the country and of their age would have acted.

On the whole, beyond comment, seems to be sufficient, and further remarks superfluous.

*Has the work camp inspired the community to greater co-operative effort?*—

One of the primary aims of the American Friends Service Committee is community self-help. Does the camp spirit build morale and bring encouragement without making dependents of the people who are helped? Does it cause loss of dignity? The writer's reply to these two questions is "Yes" and "No," respectively. The people of the Ozarks replied to the italicized question as follows:

Very much so. We can get local help now so much easier than before.

Beyond question our project this summer elicited more co-operation, enlisted more help, personal and financial, than any previously undertaken. The carry-over still lasts and the 1947 work project and camp will always be cherished in our recollections.

Yes, a goal set, and all hands, regardless of race, creed, or color, can accomplish their objective. Give us more work camps!

*Do they welcome social intermingling of their young people with city youth?—*

Educators will recognize the values, both in human relations and in education, inherent in this interchange. The campers mingled with the local youth on the work project; they also attended church services together and participated in community gatherings which brought them together in even larger numbers. Thus, the work camp succeeded quite well in bringing about a group interchange. How the local people felt about this social exchange can be seen in the following replies:

Because of the work they did, I feel that there should be no feeling against them [the campers] by our young people.

Yes, otherwise the experience would benefit only the campers.

Yes, I can't say that either will influence the other too much, but I can see no harm in it.

I cannot see any reason why they should not associate under proper supervision. This association, I think, tends to break the barrier between our city and rural boys and girls. I think this gives them a better chance to know each other honestly.

Yes, assuming that the campers are coming to become acquainted with a different way of life, association is necessary.

Yes, especially on the work project and in group recreation and week-end trips. [On many week ends the entire camp personnel, as well as some local people, took trips to see and learn more about the Ozarks.]

I do think friendship means a lot to both campers and the local people.

It would be an asset to both groups of young people.

The reader will be interested in a conversation that was held among the

boys while they were packing to leave the camp. Conversation was desultory, and gloom seemed to have settled on the living-quarters in the loft of the goat barn. Finally Jack said, "I wonder why I hate to leave this camp so much? I've been at boys' camps before and each year I hated to leave, but this is different."

Jim said, "I feel that way too."

Others agreed that they too felt the same reluctance to leave camp, while one boy burst forth with, "Gee, I hate to leave Ev Thompson and the Buchers and Kelleys, and Mrs. Purcell!"

Then, almost in chorus, "Yes, and Alf and Mrs. Eudy, and Wayne, the Enlows, the Prughs, the Lucks and Boyds, and Tom Chilton, etc."

The writer felt the same way. One day soon he is going to open that glass of crystal-clear jelly given to him by Mrs. Eudy, after he had spent a pleasant night with her family in their snug little home on Barren Fork, and recall the simplicity and the genuineness of their hospitality, as well as that of the Lucks on a similar occasion.

*Prejudice toward outsiders.*—Perhaps the most significant findings that were gleaned from the questionnaires were concerned with the prejudices toward people who are outsiders. Somehow the general expectation exists that outsiders are not welcome in areas in which they do not normally reside. This is especially true in some southern states. What did these people think about having a Negro girl, a

Japanese-American boy, and several Jewish girls and boys among the outsiders who came to work in their community? Was bringing them there a wise procedure? Did this intermingling have any values?

Only two of the thirty-two answers on the questionnaire were negative. The following statements are taken from the two negative responses:

Foreigners, native-born or otherwise, are not welcome here. [This seemed to be a categorical reply because this person favored the work camp on all items except question 11.]

... why do Northerners who don't know anything about them try to force them upon us?

One individual, while personally in favor of having a mixed group, wondered whether or not having them helped to break down intolerance. This person was genuinely concerned lest it might increase both prejudice and intolerance. Speaking of the Negro girl and the Japanese-American boy, he said:

They couldn't have been the kind of people they were *just* while they were here at camp. They must be now, and will continue to be, grand persons.

This individual discussed the question at great length. The gist of his discussion was the fear that something undesirable might happen. He can be reassured by the returns which show that 91 per cent of his neighbors felt that the procedure was good. It is clear that most of the citizens felt that the experience was helping to break

down intolerance and prejudice. One reply which had real ginger as well as dignity said:

Here are my views. There are Jews, Negroes, and many other tribes. They are all people. As far as I'm concerned they might as well be here as any place; it's O.K. with me.

#### CONCLUSION

These people of the Ozarks looked at, worked with, mingled socially with, outsiders and approved of them by an overwhelming majority. Not all the credit belongs to the work camp. Vincent Bucher, leader of the Shannondale Community Center, has done much for these people, as they have, no doubt, done much for him. Many of them told the writer of Mr. Bucher's fine work, stating that, although he has had many opportunities to accept positions in large city churches, "he stays with us!" The co-operative venture of the work camp is part of his philosophy of the "good life." Much credit also belongs to the fine people whom the writer met and whose hospitality he enjoyed. However, the findings of this modest study could not have been secured had these city boys and girls not gone to the community.

The writer had already learned what happens to the campers themselves.<sup>5</sup> Now he has discovered that, under proper conditions, a work camp provides a high degree of reciprocity.

<sup>5</sup> Seth P. Phelps, *ibid.*

The belief in the dignity of man, regardless of race or color, is good, but it is still better to do something about it. The ideal of helping, not only without degrading those who are helped, but actually encouraging them to greater self-help, was achieved last summer in the Ozarks. What greater lesson could our high-school youth learn today?

See! In the Rocks of the world  
Marches the host of mankind,  
A feeble, wavering line.  
Where are they tending?—A God  
Marshal'd them, gave them their goal.  
Ah, but the way is so long!<sup>6</sup>

<sup>6</sup> Matthew Arnold, "Rugby Chapel," *Century Readings for a Course in English Literature*, p. 858. Edited and annotated by J. W. Cunliffe, J. F. Pyre, and Karl Young. New York: Century Co., 1910.

## THE GOLDEN DECADE FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

HARL R. DOUGLASS AND LLOYD H. ELLIOTT

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AS LATE as the date of the Japanese blow at Pearl Harbor, writers were calling our attention to the low birth rate of the 1930's and pointing out its implications for education. The ensuing growth in the number of children born during the war years has come as a jolt, therefore, to the lethargic planners of schools and educational facilities. In fact, the first effects of that increased birth rate are now being felt in a number of locations by almost doubled kindergarten and first-grade enrolments.

### INCREASED FUTURE ENROLMENT

In some schools the once-adequate classroom space is being strained to house the new crop of arrivals. Most school systems are finding it possible, through makeshift reconversion of old facilities, to care for this new upsurge in some measure. By the time the full weight of the increased birth rate is felt by the schools, however, it will be impossible for them to absorb the load with their present facilities and staff. Consequently, sufficient foresight is essential on the part of those persons who are responsible for school planning. Statistics which give a good in-

dication of some of these needs for the country as a whole are available, but the fluctuations within and among school units are impossible to plan for except at the local level. Herein lies the responsibility of each school district. Educational facilities must be inventoried, the population trend must be established with some exactness, and the problem of teacher supply must be attacked if the school is to avert the unpreparedness which has so often characterized many school units in the past.

School administrators have the responsibility not only of preparing for the eventualities that will surely come but also of educating boards of education and communities to the schools' needs. Unless the administrators shoulder this responsibility, the all-too-frequent example of educational patchwork will again symbolize the public-school system of America.

Only one phase of planning is presented in this article—the increasing enrolment and the need for teachers in the secondary schools. An increase of more than 50 per cent in the birth rate—and that is what happened between 1933 and 1946—cannot be over-



looked by school administrators and school boards. It is fortunate for the secondary school, however, that the full impact is still a few years away, so that there is time for effective planning by those administrators who will accept the responsibility. What is

our educational system. Had it not been for the interruption of World War II, the trend undoubtedly would have continued. We are now, at least in some measure, resuming that pattern. Just how far it will go remains to be seen. Economic, social, and politi-

TABLE 1  
PROJECTED ENROLMENTS AND ADDITIONAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS  
NEEDED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FROM 1946 TO 1961

Year	Population* (14 through 17)	Percentage in School	Estimated Enrolment	Additional Teachers Re- quired over 1946
1946.....	8,045,159	70	5,631,611	†
1947.....	7,964,672	71	5,654,917	863‡
1948.....	7,929,530	72	5,709,262	2,876
1949.....	7,969,334	73	5,817,614	6,889
1950.....	8,035,837	74	5,940,519	11,663
1951.....	8,150,616	75	6,112,962	17,828
1952.....	8,262,782	76	6,279,714	24,004
1953.....	8,366,636	77	6,442,310	30,026
1954.....	8,569,309	78	6,684,061	38,980
1955.....	8,860,793	79	7,000,026	50,682
1956.....	9,351,505	80	7,481,204	68,503
1957.....	9,980,621	81	8,084,303	90,840
1958.....	10,388,958	82	8,518,945	106,938
1959.....	10,605,697	83	8,802,729	117,448
1960.....	10,945,399	84	9,194,135	131,945
1961.....	11,166,790	85	9,491,772	142,969§

\* All population figures are estimates based on the annual reports of the Bureau of Vital Statistics. Under-enumeration, immigration, etc., are not considered. These figures are considered, therefore, to be conservative.

† In spite of the positions which were unfilled in 1946 and the substandard teachers who were employed, no positions are listed as required until the estimated enrolment surpasses that of 1946.

‡ By using the latest available figures on enrolment and instructional staff for the elementary and secondary schools of the United States, a ratio of 1 to 28.1 is obtained. It would seem conservative, then, to take a teacher-pupil ratio of 1 to 27 for prediction of each teacher need at the secondary-school level.

§ This figure is arrived at by assuming that the 1947 birth rate will be comparable to that of 1946. From information now available this assumption appears to be accurate.

going to happen is so obvious that only those who wilfully neglect to face the realities can be caught unprepared.

In 1940, for the first time in the history of secondary education in America, more than half the seventeen-year-old population was graduated from high school. This enrolment figure marked a new level of attainment for

cal conditions will exert varying influences from year to year, but the demands of society that children remain in school to a minimum of high-school graduation is being firmly re-established in the postwar period. It now seems safe to predict that from 70 to 80 per cent of the high-school age group will be staying for graduation within another decade and that

from 75 to 85 per cent of the high-school age group will be enrolled in high school. This large enrolment will be the result of the premium which society has placed on the possession of a high-school diploma.

The low birth rate of the middle 1930's is now being reflected in a somewhat smaller high-school enrolment and a slight drop in the number of graduates. In 1951, however, the first consequences of the increased birth rate of the late '30's will be felt in the secondary schools. The growing effect of the crop of war babies can be accurately projected through the immediate future. These effects of enrolment can be interpreted in terms of teacher need, as indicated in Table 1.

As previously stated in this article and as Table 1 establishes, secondary schools have only a short time to plan and to prepare for this increased enrolment. The growth which will begin to be noticeable by 1950 will be rapid and continuous after that year. By 1956 the enrolment will have reached a 16 per cent increase, and by 1961 the high-school population will number

more than 11,000,000—an increase of nearly 39 per cent over 1946.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The teacher need, as shown in Table 1, grows proportionately with each year after 1948, but the increase in the number of teachers needed to meet the growing enrolment does not represent the full significance of the problem. We have only to remember the emergency certificates which were in use in 1946, add these to the figures given here, and we shall have a representative picture of how many teachers will be needed by 1961. Here, again, readers should be reminded that the picture is presented on the basis of *conservative* data now available.

The outlook for the decade 1951-61 offers vast opportunities for secondary education, not to mention the obvious challenge to teacher-training institutions, administrators, and school boards. It can be a golden decade for secondary education—the crowning era for realization of the dream of high-school education for all. If, however, adequate planning is neglected it can be a dismal, defeatist era. It must not be the latter.

## SOME TRENDS IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM PRACTICE

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THAT a slow but growing acceptance of modern educational theory is evident from trends in practice in the secondary-school curriculum is revealed by the present study, in which reports were received from more than four hundred secondary schools distributed throughout the United States. The degree to which, in practice, increasing attention and emphasis are placed on modern theory varies from one theory to another, and there is variation among schools with regard to any single point of theory. Some schools appear to have been relatively uninfluenced by modern theory; for they report no concern with some points, either now or in the past. As a matter of fact, in the majority of cases, many schools indicate no change in emphasis, but ratings by other schools cause the weighted averages to point toward greater application of modern theory. A picture of this changing situation is presented in Table 1.

### THE STUDY

#### *Character of the participating schools.*

—The secondary schools which participated in the study ranged in enrolment from less than fifty to more than

one thousand pupils. Three-year, four-year, and six-year schools were included, and every state in the Union was represented. All types of communities were included—large, small, urban, rural, industrial, agricultural, mining, resort, and others—and the distribution was adequate.

The schools were of the comprehensive type; that is, they offered one or more curriculums and were not specialized. Those schools of a special type, such as vocational, commercial, or technical schools, were not included in the study. The tenure of administrators in charge of the schools ranged from less than one to more than forty years. The distribution of schools on the basis of pupil enrolment was adequate for classification into six groups. Replies were received from 467 secondary schools, but failure to respond to some of the questions reduced the average number of usable replies for each point of theory.

*Collection of the data.*—Each respondent was asked to reply on the basis of the actual practice that was generally characteristic of the curriculum of his secondary school. The following key was to be used in the replies:

- N *Not concerned* with it now or in the past
- 2 Receives *much less* emphasis now than in the past
- 1 Receives *less* emphasis now than in the past
  - o No significant *change*
  - 1 Receives *more* emphasis now than in the past
  - 2 Receives *much more* emphasis now than in the past

It was suggested that differences in value between successive figures, in so far as possible, were to be assumed as approximately equal. Opportunity was provided for making comments or qualifications concerning any point of theory included in the study, but only a few respondents took advantage of this opportunity.

#### THE FINDINGS

*Trends most apparent in curriculum practice.*—Of the thirty-one points included in the study (see Table 1), the twelve on which the greatest increase in emphasis in practice was indicated are as follows, with the weighted average ratings shown in parentheses:

1. Abilities, skills, understandings, attitudes, etc., as educational outcomes (1.1)
2. Curricular revision through re-evaluation of existing courses and refinement and revision of them (1.0)
3. Planning curriculums and courses of study in advance of teaching them (.98)
4. Teacher-administrator co-operation in curriculum building (.89)
5. Developmental and adjustment needs of youth (.89)
6. Committee approach to curriculum study and construction (.88)
7. Curricular revision through addition of courses (.87)
8. Vocational education (.85)
9. A more realistic and practical curriculum (.84)
10. Expanding the curriculum beyond the walls of the school (.81)
11. Curricular experimentation by teachers (.81)
12. Use of findings of research and other valuable studies in curriculum building (.81)

Only two items received a weighted average rating of plus one or greater—a fact indicative of the slow rate at which modern educational theory is accepted and applied in practice. There is some evidence that the larger schools—those having enrolments of two hundred or greater—keep more in step with modern theory than do smaller schools. The difference, however, does not always appear to be clear cut and, in some instances, may be of no real significance. The larger schools appear to be more forward-looking in the application of modern theory with regard to methods, procedures, and techniques of curriculum building, although much progress is yet to be made in this area. In no respect were the largest of the schools necessarily the most progressive.

The slight reduction in emphasis (-.03) placed on college-entrance requirements reveals the continued influence of the college on the secondary school. More than one hundred schools indicated that they are actually placing more emphasis on college-entrance requirements. The static situation at this point is not in accord with the theory advocated by leading thinkers in the curriculum field who participated in other aspects of the

study devoted to determining sound educational theory which can be applied in practice.

The data in Table 1 also indicate a slight increase in emphasis on information per se as an educational outcome, but this increase is overshadowed by the gain in emphasis on abilities, skills, understandings, and attitudes. Ratings by curriculum experts suggest that these latter behavior characteristics deserve much emphasis in the secondary-school curriculum.

Increased attention to planning, to co-operative curriculum construction, to curricular experimentation, and to the use of the findings of educational research is also encouraging. Teacher-pupil co-operation, however, received less increase in emphasis than is suggested by the increase in emphasis on meeting the developmental and adjustment needs of youth.

Caution in making changes and in trying new methods and procedures also is evident from the data in Table 1. Only a small percentage of schools apparently do much with the newer types of curriculum organization, and some schools that have attempted more progressive plans have relinquished them.

Too few schools are concerned with reading instruction, and not enough courses are organized in terms of the needs and problems apparent in everyday living, irrespective of subject matter or departmental lines. Courses of this type were rated by curriculum experts as of great value in improving the curriculum. Comparatively few

schools probably have personnel who are adequately trained to organize and to teach these courses. The implications for teacher-training institutions are obvious, and in-service training programs are also essential to progress in this respect.

Ability grouping, about which there is difference of opinion among experts, appears to be receiving more attention in practice, although the increase in emphasis is slight. A number of schools reported no concern for co-operative work-study programs or for training-within-industry programs. Smaller rural schools, of course, generally lack the opportunity to develop programs of this type to the same extent that is possible in larger urban schools located in industrial centers.

#### CAUTIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN INTERPRETING DATA

It should be understood that the data in Table 1 only indicate trends and do not show the absolute degree or amount of emphasis given to the points of theory. The figures present a comparison of "past" and "present" emphasis, without defining more accurately the actual status of either. Other aspects of the curriculum study, of which this survey of trends is but a part, clearly reveal that much improvement is yet to be made and that more effective application of sound educational theory in curriculum practice is both possible and desirable.

This survey of trends is not exhaustive because it is based on opinion and deals with only thirty-one prac-



TABLE 1

RATINGS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS INDICATING TRENDS WITH RESPECT TO EMPHASIS NOW PLACED ON CERTAIN PRACTICES IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN COMPARISON WITH EMPHASIS PREVIOUSLY PLACED ON SAME PRACTICES

Practice	Not Con- cerned	Much Less	Less	No Change	More Em- phasis	Much More Em- phasis	Weighted Average
General education (428):*							
Number.....		3	23	190	147	65	.58
Per cent.....		1	6	44	34	15	
Vocational education (438):							.85
Number.....	3	4	16	144	144	127	
Per cent.....	1	1	4	33	33	29	
College-entrance requirements (442):							.03
Number.....	2	23	107	206	70	34	
Per cent.....	0.5	5	24	47	16	8	
Developmental and adjustment needs of youth (415):							.89
Number.....	2	2	4	117	203	87	
Per cent.....	0.5	0.5	1	28	49	21	
A more realistic and practical curriculum (424):							.84
Number.....	15	6	5	113	199	86	
Per cent.....	4	1	1	27	47	20	
Expanding the curriculum beyond the walls of the school (435):							.81
Number.....	10		3	152	185	85	
Per cent.....	2		1	35	43	20	
Relating curriculum to philosophy of education and to ultimate curricular and educational objectives (416):							.78
Number.....	5		4	144	197	66	
Per cent.....	1		1	35	47	16	
Horizontal and vertical articulation of the curriculum within itself and below and above its years (401):							.57
Number.....	59		1	140	171	30	
Per cent.....	15		0.2	35	43	7	
Information and knowledge per se as educational outcomes (403):							.13
Number.....	38	20	80	112	135	18	
Per cent.....	9	5	20	28	33	4	
Abilities, skills, understandings, attitudes, etc., as educational outcomes (403):							1.1
Number.....	9		3	53	236	102	
Per cent.....	2		1	13	59	25	
Flexibility in the curriculum, such as in length of courses, length of class periods, number of meetings per week, number of courses carried by pupils, etc. (414):							.68
Number.....	40	2	2	143	168	59	
Per cent.....	10	0.5	0.5	35	41	14	
Ability grouping of pupils (422):							.38
Number.....	65	17	31	133	126	50	
Per cent.....	15	4	7	32	30	12	
Co-operative work-study programs (416):							.64
Number.....	66		2	135	158	55	
Per cent.....	16		0.5	32	38	13	
Training-within-industry programs (412):							.52
Number.....	103	1	4	131	125	48	
Per cent.....	25	0.2	1	32	30	12	
Courses dealing with problems of everyday living, irrespective of subject-matter or departmental lines (425):							.75
Number.....	6		5	159	188	67	
Per cent.....	1		1	37	44	16	

\* Figures in parentheses indicate number of administrators rating the item.

TABLE 1—Continued

Practice	Not Con- cerned	Much Less	Less	No Change	More Em- phasis	Much More Em- phasis	Weighted Average
Reading instruction (425):							.75
Number.....	3	3	7	156	179	77	
Per cent.....	1	1	2	37	42	18	
Survey or other broad-field courses which cut across subject-matter or departmental lines (412):							.36
Number.....	46	3	5	216	125	17	
Per cent.....	11	1	1	52	30	4	
Core curriculum (413):							.31
Number.....	53	6	19	205	99	31	
Per cent.....	13	1	5	50	24	8	
Experience curriculum (412):							.47
Number.....	51	1	6	180	142	32	
Per cent.....	12	0.2	1	44	34	8	
Correlation of subject-matter courses (414):							.59
Number.....	17	2	4	178	172	41	
Per cent.....	4	0.5	1	43	42	10	
Fused courses (such as general mathematics) (423):							.55
Number.....	18	9	18	160	168	50	
Per cent.....	4	2	4	38	40	12	
Teacher-pupil co-operation in selection and organization of curricular experiences (401):							.57
Number.....	24	1	3	179	153	41	
Per cent.....	6	0.2	1	45	38	10	
Teacher-administrator co-operation in cur- riculum building (420):							.89
Number.....	5	1	3	136	170	105	
Per cent.....	1	0.3	1	32	40	25	
Building the curriculum on basis of commu- nity study which reveals needs, interests, abilities, etc. (415):							.70
Number.....	10	3	1	173	167	61	
Per cent.....	2	1	0.2	42	40	15	
Curricular experimentation by teachers (437):							.81
Number.....	32	1	6	99	236	63	
Per cent.....	7	0.2	1	23	54	14	
School-community co-operation in develop- ment of the curriculum (429):							.57
Number.....	67	2	2	144	179	35	
Per cent.....	16	0.5	0.5	34	42	8	
Use of findings of research and other valuable studies in curriculum building (431):							.81
Number.....	32	1	4	89	259	46	
Per cent.....	7	0.2	1	21	60	11	
Planning curriculums and courses of study in advance of teaching them (437):							.98
Number.....	14	.....	4	86	235	98	
Per cent.....	3	.....	1	20	54	22	
Committee approach to curriculum study and construction (422):							.88
Number.....	37	1	3	93	198	90	
Per cent.....	9	0.2	1	22	47	21	
Curricular revision through addition of courses (427):							.87
Number.....	16	3	22	65	243	78	
Per cent.....	4	1	5	15	57	18	
Curricular revision through re-evaluation of existing courses and refinement and revision of them (420):							1.0
Number.....	16	.....	2	56	259	87	
Per cent.....	4	.....	0.5	13	62	21	

tices. No attempt was made to determine how well the schools applied the theory. The responses may also reflect the school administrators' recognition of sound theory and their intention to apply it, which might possibly cause them to present a somewhat more favorable picture of practice than actually exists. On the other hand, some respondents might possibly have underestimated the progress which their respective schools have made.

#### CONCLUSION

In spite of these notes of caution, however, the practices which were re-

ported indicate that secondary schools are increasingly accepting modern educational theory, that they are applying it in practice, and that they are participating in its development and improvement. Though there is still a great deal to be attained, the fact that some improvement is indicated in the reports from secondary schools is encouraging. It is true that progress has been slow, but possibly this adds to the stability of the gains. As better-qualified teachers become increasingly available, perhaps further strides forward will be made.

## GUIDANCE: A CRITICAL PROBLEM IN NEGRO SECONDARY EDUCATION

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IT is possible to describe some of the changes in American public-school philosophy in terms of the increasing emphasis placed on guidance and child development. This fact not only is evident in the growing body of guidance literature but is manifest also in the increasing number and effectiveness of actual guidance programs. There is a consequent tendency to assume that guidance programs are beneficial in all respects.

Actual experience, however, shows that the validity of this assumption may be questioned. Indeed, the expansion of guidance services and programs in secondary schools often creates as many problems as it solves. In order to reap the full benefit of this new and expanding aspect of American public education, we must, therefore, face this new series of problems realistically and attempt to solve them practically.

### THE STUDY

The study which constitutes the basis of this report was undertaken to see how closely practice correlates with opinion in this field and to discover whether or not Negro secondary schools of the southeastern region had

yet been caught up in the ground swell of mounting interest in guidance. The investigation sought tentative answers to questions such as the following:

1. What is the present status of guidance programs and services in secondary schools for Negroes in those states in which separate schools for Negroes are required by law?
2. Does experience, though limited or fragmentary, confirm or contradict the judgment that guidance is a valuable addition to the total services of the secondary school?
3. What specific problems and difficulties loom largest in carrying out effective programs of guidance and child development in these schools?

### THE FINDINGS

This article reports, in part, the findings on the third question. The study was based on reports from 86 secondary schools for Negroes located in ten of the southeastern states. As shown in Table 1, 37 of these schools (43 per cent) are situated in North Carolina, while 49 (57 per cent) are located in the nine other states. Georgia is the only state from which no reply was received. Of the total number of schools covered, 54 (63 per cent) are urban; and 32 (37 per cent), are rural. Further examination of Table 1 shows that the schools outside

North Carolina that were included in the study are predominantly urban. This is different from the picture of schools that reported from within North Carolina. It is also observed that the out-of-state schools tend to have larger faculties than the North Carolina schools.

*Teachers largely untrained.*—A total of 1,226 teachers were covered in reports from the 86 schools. Among this

members the ratio of untrained to trained teachers is about two to one, the same as in the total. In schools with 15-29 teachers the excess of untrained teachers is greatest. Here, for every teacher who reports any training in guidance, there are three teachers who have had no training of any kind in guidance.

A three-to-one ratio of teachers untrained to those trained in guidance

TABLE 1  
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN AND OUTSIDE NORTH CAROLINA ACCORDING  
TO SIZE OF FACULTY AND URBAN-RURAL LOCATION

NUMBER OF FACULTY MEMBERS	URBAN SCHOOLS		RURAL SCHOOLS		TOTAL	
	In State	Out-of- State	In State	Out-of- State	In State	Out-of- State
Under 6.....	1	1	5	3	6	4
6-9.....	4	8	9	2	13	10
10-14.....	5	3	4	5	9	8
15-19.....	1	7	2	.....	3	7
20-29.....	5	10	1	1	6	11
30 and over.....	.....	8	.....	.....	.....	8
Not reported.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1
Total...	16	38	21	11	37	49

total (see Table 2) a two-to-one ratio prevails between teachers who were untrained and those who were trained in guidance. That is, on an average, of every three teachers, city or country, large or small school, two have no training at all in guidance.

In the large schools—those with faculties numbering over 29 teachers—and in the small schools—those with fewer than six teachers—the ratio between teachers wholly untrained in guidance and teachers trained in guidance is nearly equal. However, in schools with 6-14 faculty

shows up among urban schools in which the size of faculty ranges from fifteen to twenty-nine. However, in the rural schools the most unfavorable ratio of untrained to trained guidance teachers, two to one, appears in schools with 6-14 teachers.

These data point up two striking facts regarding the situation. First, two-thirds of the teachers in secondary schools for Negroes in the Southeast appear to have had no training to equip them for coping with guidance and child development. Second, the concentration of untrained teachers is



sharpest in those faculty-size brackets in which we find the largest number of schools.

*Most teachers share guidance functions.*—The full impact of inadequate training for guidance can be realized only when we observe that most teachers must share in the schools' guidance services. This situation seems to magnify the deficiencies of training and to impede successful operation of this expanding and, as

presents itself. Even in those instances in which counselors are employed, all teachers share in the program at some point. In other words, although Table 3 includes four apparently mutually exclusive types of guidance programs, there is, in reality, considerable overlapping in the direction of all-teacher participation. This fact is all the more significant when projected against the serious deficiency in teacher training for the guidance function.

TABLE 2  
NUMBER OF TEACHERS TRAINED IN GUIDANCE ACCORDING TO SIZE  
OF FACULTY AND URBAN-RURAL LOCATION

NUMBER OF FACULTY MEMBERS	URBAN SCHOOL		RURAL SCHOOL		TOTAL	
	Trained	Untrained	Trained	Untrained	Trained	Untrained
Under 6 . . . . .	11	11	17	16	28	27
6-14 . . . . .	45	107	61	122	106	229
15-29 . . . . .	120	372	18	60	138	432
30 and over . . . . .	132	134	.....	.....	132	134
Total . . . . .	308	624	96	198	404	822

yet poorly organized, phase of these Negro secondary schools.

For purposes of this study, as shown in Table 3, the guidance programs in the eighty-six schools were classified into four general types, plus a composite type. While the titles would seem to be self-explanatory, one or two further comments are desirable. Those schools which employ guidance classes also carry on a guidance service through the home room. On the other hand, informal counseling seems to be handled by all teachers whenever the appropriate opportunity

Twenty-four schools employ informal counseling and twenty-four the home room as the principal method of guidance. That is, a total of 48, or 55.8 per cent of the 86 schools, admit that the guidance services are of a type that requires participation by all teachers. Of these 48 schools, 26 have faculties which range in size from 6 through 14. An additional 12 schools, or 13.9 per cent, report some combination of the four basic types of guidance programs. Each of these programs involves some pattern of all-teacher participation in this phase of the

school service. By contrast only 9 of the 86 schools reported the use of guidance counselors or guidance classes as the major method in this field of service. If these two patterns may be considered as indicative of specialization of the guidance function, then we have further evidence of the tendency to include all teachers in the activity.

On the other hand, current guidance programs are predominantly of the type that call for the participation of all teachers. That is, while two-thirds of the teachers have no training, two-thirds of the schools have programs in which all teachers must share.

It is difficult to grasp the full import of this situation for the effectiveness of the Negro secondary school.

TABLE 3  
GUIDANCE PROGRAMS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO  
TYPE OF PROGRAM AND SIZE OF SCHOOL

Number of Faculty Members	Home Room	Guidance Class	Informal Counseling	Guidance Counselor	Multiple-Type Program	Not Reported	Total
Under 6.....	2	2	3	.....	.....	3	10
6-9.....	9	1	7	.....	3	3	23
10-14.....	4	2	6	.....	1	4	17
15-19.....	1	1	1	.....	2	5	10
20-29.....	5	.....	5	2	4	1	17
30 and over....	3	.....	2	.....	2	1	8
Not reported....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Total.....	24	7	24	2	12	17	86

#### CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion it may be asserted that these data point up a crucial situation in secondary schools for Negroes of the southeastern states. While expanding programs of guidance and child development present a variety of vexing difficulties, it is clear that guidance problem number one is the poor training of the teachers. Two-thirds of the twelve hundred teachers who were covered in this study had had no guidance training of any kind. The training deficiency is severest in those faculty-size brackets in which the largest number of schools is found.

The problem is all the more trying because of the complex social setting of these schools. It is entirely probable that, at present, the expansion of guidance is making little positive contribution to the success of the total school program.

These data suggest that increased emphasis on teacher training in guidance is one of the directions that professional education in this region should take. The social value of guidance as a tool is well established. The practical and immediate task is to equip teachers in service as well as teachers in training with the appropriate skills.

## FINE ARTS AS A MEANS OF PERSON- ALITY INTEGRATION

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FINE arts, as it is generally taught in the universities of this country, has been developed around what might be called the artistically superior student. It is designed to improve the talents of these students through practice, so that they may go into some professional field. The rest of the students who come in contact with this department—and they are the majority—are destined finally to become disillusioned, to recognize that they will never succeed professionally in this field. They must “write off” this part of their liberal arts training to experience. “Refinement of the sensibilities” and “appreciation” are words that must serve as a balm for their frustration.

### ART FOR EVERYBODY

The concept of “art for everybody” is so relatively new that an adjustment to it has not as yet been made in the art-teaching techniques of the average liberal arts school. The idea that the production of art is a way of thinking and of understanding life, which should be as much a part of a well-trained student’s mental equipment as are logic and science, is new.

It is opposed to the older notion that art is for the artist and that training in art is for the selection of the specially gifted persons who are to produce art objects for others to enjoy. It is granted that there always has been, and always will be, a place for this kind of art, and the writer does not propose to discourage the professional training of artists.

The concern here is with those students in our colleges who constitute the majority—students who can be taught how to use art as a means of developing their general creative faculties and as a means of understanding and controlling the emotional and intuitive side of their personalities. If art can make them better-balanced individuals—better able to understand the vague forces and drives that control their lives—if art can teach them to find and use new creative resources from their own personalities that they heretofore did not know existed, it would indeed become a proper tool for living. Their art products would not have value for decoration or for the stirring of the emotions of others but would be strictly personal to the creators. The student would be

using art for the purpose of objectifying part of the unknown in himself and of the world in which he lives. For him, it would be a means of reaching beyond his present horizon of understanding, beyond where he could otherwise reach with his logic and science.

This attitude toward art, of course, demands a decided adjustment in our traditional modes of thinking. First, we must recognize that training the professional artist in the university is secondary to the training of the human personality. Second, we must be prepared to shift our attention away from the art product and to embrace a new concept, "the act of creating," which is more closely related to the need of the average personality.

"Creativity" is a fashionable word in art-education circles today. Yet the very word is one of the most illusive in our vocabulary. We know how to teach technique and the logical systems of design that are accepted for our own time, but of creativity we know little. Beyond pointing out this fact, the present writer can add only a negative statement: whatever we mean by "creativity," we do not mean creating something out of nothing. When we speak of intuition, for example, we do not mean reaching out beyond ourselves to grasp things that we have not experienced. Intuition means, rather, a high sensitivity to our total selves and to our total experience. Similarly, the creative art process is a process of objectifying all kinds of experiences—those which are

consciously before us and those which are stored in memory as vague feelings and impulses. They are real but are not to be called forth by logic alone. This definition means, simply, that the individual, as an artist, is merely becoming more aware of the various parts of his own personality and giving a special relation to these parts. When he has made an art object, he has advanced in an understanding of something that was already there, not of something that comes from a mystical world beyond.

The word "understanding," then, comes to have a special meaning, distinct from what we call "grasping intuitively." To understand our emotions, we must bring them out of the realm of vague emotions or feelings about things into our world of logic. An art object, for instance, is a real thing that we can talk about and describe in terms of words. It is this realm of words that constitutes our tangible world, in which fact and fancy can be united and in which we can find stability.

#### IMAGERY

Psychologists have already developed the technique for aiding the individual to translate symbols of the emotions into a form that can be understood in terms of words. As they see it, the bases of mental health and stability depend on the ability of the individual to translate the image data of the emotions into a verbal language that can be understood.

Artists have frequently become in-

interested in the phenomenon of imagery as proper subject matter for art because of its relation to visual experiences and the emotions. Medieval artists, Romantic artists, and the Surrealists have all concerned themselves with visions, apparitions, and imagery. The recording of these phenomena has a limited meaning as they use it, however; for, while the source of inspiration is genuine, the value given to the product has been misplaced. The nature of this kind of material is so weird and unlike ordinary experience that it may attract interest because of its novelty and, therefore, may suggest that it is presenting a strange new experience which is valuable because of its incomprehensibility.

To place this kind of value on the product of imagery is to mistake the true character and nature of image phenomena. Imagery is as much a part of the ordinary thinking process as the manipulation of word ideas, but it differs from word-idea manipulation in a dual type of presentation. Images may have a direct correspondence with real fact. For example, when we call up the image of a house in which we formerly lived, we are using an image instead of a word to call up the past. It may appear as a real picture, exactly corresponding to the actual house.

On the other hand, imagery can also be used to manipulate ideas that are abstract and have no exact physical correspondent. For every abstract word which can be suggested to a per-

son, he can call up an image of something that is associated with it. For example, when we say "growth," he may see a butterfly emerging from a cocoon. If we say "imagination," he may see a bird flying. In addition to the butterfly image, which may correspond in type to a rather general response to this word, he may also make visual associations that are individual and personal. For each word he may have several visual associations, but they all serve as symbols for the same idea.

In addition to this associational source of imagery, there is also a substitutional source. Words that have a high emotional content may call forth the inhibiting faculty. In this case, instead of a direct correspondence between word and image, the person may automatically call forth a substitute that is a disguise for the original image. It may be another less recognizable association, or it may be an alteration or an inversion of the original.

If we keep these facts in mind, it is easy to understand why thinking, when it is done in terms of imagery, should produce an apparent jumble of fantastic events when valued from the point of view of reality. The sequence of visual symbols, though extremely logical in the relation that we have given them as labels for our ideas, have no connection with our other thinking process that is conducted in terms of words. Because imagery uses symbols, the ideas which it presents are not real in themselves but are as-

sociated with the real, a substitute for the real, or alteration, or inversion of, the real. Therefore, if we are to understand imagery, we must understand for what it is an association or a substitution.

If the foregoing paragraphs make clear the possible utility of imagery as a useful link between art objects and the emotions, which transcends the function of verbal logic as far as the individual's understanding is concerned, we can proceed to a further examination of its nature.

We must, at the outset, have some degree of control over emotional understanding if it is to be related to a kind of total understanding of ourselves. The artist who "waits for inspiration," seeks to "get in a mood," is more or less at the mercy of chance. As he waits for inspiration, an image may appear in his mind, or the phrase of a piece of music may flash into consciousness and start the creative process; or he may start working with materials, proceeding from a logical construction, in hopes that the emotional content will appear automatically. Frequently the emotional content does appear, but it is just as likely that logic may predominate and be presented as a substitute.

Another approach to inspiration puts logic in the background. An artist may begin working directly with a material, looking for suggestion in it as he proceeds to construct. Here again, theorists have tended to make a false evaluation of the product, in the belief that the material itself re-

veals certain universal qualities of nature's form which, once discovered, will constitute a relationship of the artist to a sort of absolute beauty. The writer does not intend to get into a controversy over this hypothesis but seeks, rather, to point out something that we actually know about the human personality when it constructively creates in terms of materials.

"Finding the form" in a piece of clay or in a pencil scribble is little different from interpreting the Rorschach test, in which ink spots suggest ideas. The psychologist does not believe that his subjects are discovering absolute qualities in an ink spot. Rather, he knows that they are putting into operation the faculty of association. The subject may not necessarily make associations that correspond to his real world. They may be symbolic and similar to the visual-association images that we have previously explained, and, in this way, a relation is established with the emotional side of the personality.

We can conclude here, then, that the artistic medium is not a means to a hypothetical "world beyond" but is the means whereby the artist integrates his own emotional background through the process of association.

Before returning to the image itself, however, we should examine another characteristic of the constructive process. Enough work has already been done in art analysis to convince us that the individual artist not only can express himself associatively regarding his subject matter but does so almost automatically as



far as his technique is concerned. For example, Alschuler and Hattwick<sup>1</sup> made a careful analysis of personality traits and the emotional problems of children at the primary-grade level. It was discovered that there was a direct relation between the way a child painted and his emotional problems. The type of stroke used, the choice of color, the kind of form chosen—these technical operations—were unconsciously associative and symbolic in nature and were directly related as symbols to the child's special emotional character.

All the arguments presented up to this point should demonstrate primarily that the language of art, if it is to be a language of the emotions, should more properly be concerned with the process of associative thinking rather than with logic and that physical structure may have value as structure but may not necessarily be related to emotional expression.

Image thinking, then, is related to art creation as are these other associative elements. All of us are aware of the associative images as they appear in dreams, and many of us have become conscious of the fact that images, either direct or associative, present themselves almost automatically at various occasions. That imagery is a useful and controllable function, however, is not so generally realized.

A recent article in the *Journal of*

*Psychology*<sup>2</sup> explains how the average individual can manipulate images in response to suggestion made by another person. For example, I may say, "See a cat," and the average person can produce an image of a cat. Some persons must close their eyes; others may call up the image with their eyes open or even project it on the wall or on a piece of paper. The experience of sounds and smells and the sense of touch may be called forth by suggestion in relation to the image produced. A concert hall may be imaged, for example, and an actual tune heard.

The production of associative images may also be produced by suggesting a trend of visual events that leads to their automatic production or by the suggestion that a symbol will appear in response to a word. Once the average person has practiced under the suggestion of another, he can produce the same results by suggesting to himself, and soon the production of images becomes automatic, yet under the control of the imager, in regard to subject matter, degree of clarity of the image, and reproduction of the image.

At the University of Kansas we have been experimenting with the production of images in relation to architectural design. Under autosuggestion, the students see the interior and exterior views of the buildings which they are designing before the designs are drawn. This type of imagery is direct, not associative, but it

<sup>1</sup> Rose H. Alschuler and LaBerta Weiss Hattwick, *Painting and Personality: A Study of Young Children*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947.

<sup>2</sup> Robert E. Johnson, "Suggestion and Visual Impression," *Journal of Psychology*, XXIII (April, 1947), 193-96.

demonstrates the automatic value of imagery. Impressions, so vague that they might ordinarily be forgotten, present themselves automatically in the images, thus extending the students' creative resources. If, however, factors that are not desired enter automatically, they can be eliminated or rearranged by the process of re-imaging; for through autosuggestion these elements can be eliminated.

At the practice school at the College of William and Mary, we were able to experiment with associative images at the primary-grade level. Children at this age produce associative images more readily because of the lack of inhibitions of the verbal-thinking process. Some children, for example, may describe a movie or a long series of events which they see projected on the wall. These dramas read more like a dream than a real movie because of the larger amount of associative material that presents itself. Many obscure symbols, however, are clarified by the process of changing them in image into something else. It seems certain that the change always produces another visual association with the same meaning.

The main part of this work consisted, however, in the production of the visual-association equivalents of a known word. It showed conclusively that everyone has a visual equivalent, or series of them, for every word idea. While there is often a correspondence in the type of association, there is a

wide variation in the particular symbols, owing to the difference in each person's association pattern. These images were carried to the point of representation in an art form and showed that there is a possibility of developing the faculty of combining a large number of image ideas in the same picture.

It should be clear at this point that the production of this kind of art, by the average college student, is entirely possible, once he has been taught how to produce free-association images in response to his own suggestion. A free use of this faculty comes only with practice.

#### THE SIGNIFICANCE OF IMAGERY

Once the significance of associational image is understood, the art thus produced comes to have a real value for the student. He is learning the manipulation, recording, and interpretation of a language of the emotions. His feeling and intuitions need no longer remain vague and uncontrollable. His memory can reach back into the timelessness of his subconscious to help bring about a more complete integration of all parts of his character. He may then come to experience art, not vaguely, but as part of his everyday living—a clue to self-understanding. "Art for everyone" should be defined in this light. It is primarily a service to the individual to help him understand himself.

## VETERANS' HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION BY EXAMINATION

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THE demobilization of more than ten million servicemen occasioned many problems for education. School people have carried a considerable share of the load in aiding the nation to assimilate these men into the processes of civilian life. One of the problems basic to a sound readjustment has been the proper school placement of those veterans contemplating further education. The urgencies of the situation have been so pressing that the teachers, registrars, counselors, and administrators have found little time to pause for evaluating their efforts. However, they have been at least subconsciously challenged. Have they been working on a basis that is educationally sound, or have these veterans been the beneficiaries of educational gratuities?

It is certainly not too soon to start to examine some of the outcomes of the program. San Francisco alone has evaluated the service, schooling, and experience of thousands of veterans. In that community more than 1,500 ex-servicemen have been granted diplomas on the basis of performance in the tests of General Educational Development. The data which have been

collected on these men will furnish material for many evaluative studies.

The findings of a study of a group of these veterans who were granted high-school diplomas on the basis of test performance are presented in this article. The data were collected on 300 cases selected at random from the files of the Veterans Counseling Center, the evaluating agency of the San Francisco Board of Education. Studies were made of the educational background of the veterans, their test performance, and the use which the veterans had made or intended to make of their newly gained status.

In the statistical treatment of the educational background of the veterans, the data collected were (1) the length of school attendance—the number of semesters which the veteran had spent in school above Grade VIII; (2) recency of training—the number of years that had elapsed since the veteran last attended high school; (3) success in the basic subjects—the average of the marks falling in the areas examined in the G.E.D. tests (English, science, social studies, and mathematics). The test performance of these same veterans was studied.

The standard scores were treated statistically, and the achievement of the group was compared to the percentile ranks on the national and California norms. Finally, a follow-up study was conducted to determine the use which the veterans had made, or intended to make, of their newly gained status as high-school graduates. A double penny post card was used as the questionnaire device. The areas suggested by the inquiry were school attendance, civil-service examination, improved job status, and qualifying for a new job.

#### THE G.E.D. TESTS

The veterans who were studied, like millions of others, had been exposed during their military careers to varied experiences. Some of these experiences, such as the many service schools, followed the formal educative process, but many more were of an informal variety, such as travel into foreign lands. Thus, many of our boys lived their earlier geography and social-studies lessons. Out of these varied experiences were developed attitudes, abilities, and behavior that are universally accepted as desirable outcomes of the educative process. Moreover, there was no question of the validity of the growth; arguments, if any, would have centered in its evaluation and measurement.

What ensued undoubtedly will some day be recognized as a singular example of an intelligent, direct, and anticipatory attack on a problem of tremendous educational significance. Memories of the chaotic conditions

that prevailed following the first World War—the competition of schools in the granting of indiscriminate blanket credit—convinced educators that they should prepare for the stampede to school which would take place upon demobilization. As early as 1942, educators started to consider the proper evaluation of military training, special field training, and general educational development resulting from service-connected experiences. Under the leadership of the American Council on Education and the various regional associations, plans and tools were developed.

When hostilities terminated and the gates for demobilization were opened, tools were available to the schools for the proper evaluation of the educational growth of the flood of youths that poured through their portals. The *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experience in the Armed Services*,<sup>1</sup> which is reverently called "Tuttle's Guide" by the evaluators as an expression of gratitude to the American Council on Education's committee chairman, G. P. Tuttle, registrar at the University of Illinois, was on hand. It in practice fulfils the objectives which were listed in the early literature as those which:

(1) will describe the training programs in the various branches of the services,

<sup>1</sup> American Council on Education, *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*. Compiled at the University of Illinois under the Auspices of the Cooperative Study of Training and Experiences in the Armed Services, G. P. Tuttle, director. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

(2) will indicate in so far as possible the equivalents of these programs in terms of subjects generally taught in secondary and higher institutions, and

(3) will suggest the approximate equivalents in terms of credits.<sup>2</sup>

Invaluable were the United States Armed Forces Institute examinations which were developed to measure growth in correspondence courses, tests of competence in the various fields of service instructions, and tests of general educational development. It is this latter group that has gained the greatest postwar attention. The caliber of the committee which prepared the tests, including such persons as Ralph W. Tyler, Edmund G. Williamson, and E. F. Lindquist, forestalled much controversy and attests to the professional quality of the effort. The challenge of measurement of such broad and apparently untenable objectives would have discouraged less capable workers. In the manual the authors present tenets basic to the development of the tests, which show the soundness of their thinking.

... to measure the extent to which *all* of the past experiences of the individual tested ... including experiences gained in the military service—have contributed to his educational development, or to his ability to carry on successfully in a program of general education of the type which the academic high school and the first two years of the liberal arts college aim to provide.

... tests must measure as directly as

<sup>2</sup> E. F. Lindquist, "The Use of Tests in the Accreditation of Military Experience and in the Educational Placement of War Veterans," *Educational Record*, XXV (October, 1944), 361.

possible the attainment of the *ultimate* objectives of the whole program of general education, and must minimize as much as possible the more immediate and temporary content objectives of special school subjects.<sup>3</sup>

Tests were developed at the college and the high-school level. The college tests have come to be used mostly as entrance batteries to determine whether or not the individual who is being tested is capable of carrying on college work. Satisfactory performance in the high-school battery has come to be accepted as evidence of attainment of the broader objective of general education on that level and as a basis for granting a high-school diploma.

The high-school battery is made up of five power-type tests, each of which usually takes about ninety minutes for completion. Three of these, those in the areas of literature, social studies, and natural science, are tests of the type wherein students are required to interpret and to evaluate a number of reading selections representative of those which they will have to read and to study in subsequent school work. The test in English composition consists of a series of systematically corrupted passages, including many of the most common and serious faults found in the writing of high-school students. The veteran selects from several choices the construction which will restore the passage to its correct

<sup>3</sup> *The United States Armed Forces Institute Tests of General Educational Development (High School Level)*, *Examiner's Manual*, pp. 5-6. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945.



form. The test of mathematics consists of practical problem-solving measures of general ability. Four forms of the high-school battery have been developed: Form A for exclusive use of the services; Form B, Form C; and, just recently, Form D for use in the various evaluating agencies.

The standardization procedure was thorough. Form B was administered at 814 public schools to 35,432 Seniors just before graduation from a general high-school curriculum. Standard scores were computed, and percentile norms for each test were determined for the nation and for six regions, including California. The California schools that participated in the standardization were Balboa High School, San Francisco; Sequoia Union High School, Redwood City; and Eagle Rock High School, Eagle Rock.

#### ACCEPTANCE OF THE G.E.D. TESTS

The schools gave early consideration to the problem of accepting the tests. In San Francisco, for instance, a committee of head counselors recommended in 1943 the acceptance of the program then in process of development. The California State Legislature subsequently passed permissive legislation; Sections 10531, 10532, and 10533 of the Education Code paved the way for local implementation of the recommendations of the American Council on Education. The following statement quoted from the State Department of Education, Division of Readjustment Education, Veteran's Service Letter 5, issued in September,

1945, serves as testimony of an early indorsement of the program:

The State Department of Education favors the acceptance of the recommendations found in the manual *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experience in the Armed Services*.

In February, 1946, the San Francisco Board of Education adopted Resolution D2847 establishing procedures and the agency for local application of these policies. In accepting the G.E.D. tests as a basis for high-school graduation, its report states:

The American Council recommends that a serviceman who satisfactorily passes these tests with an average grade of 45 or higher, or who passes each test with no grade below 35, be considered eligible to receive a high-school diploma.

This criterion is accepted as one of the means a veteran or serviceman may use to establish eligibility for a high school diploma in conjunction with the basic school residence (attendance).

The sole addition made to the American Council on Education's recommendation was the residence requirement—the successful completion of one semester of work at the level of Grade IX, or higher, in a San Francisco public secondary school. The necessity of such a regulation in a city so close to the huge centers of demobilization need not be emphasized.

In July, 1946, the California State Board of Education rather belatedly and, after the urgencies of demobilization had forced the local agencies to act independently, adopted Section 101f of Title 5 of the California Ad-



ministrative Code. The resolution stated:

The governing board of a school district maintaining a high school may award a diploma of graduation to an honorably discharged veteran of World War II who has completed tests of General Educational Development (high-school level) with an average standard score of forty-five or above on each of the five tests in the battery and with a standard score of thirty-five or above on each of the five tests in the battery, and who has met the state legal requirements prescribed by the governing board of the high school granting the diploma.<sup>4</sup>

Since this resolution established a standard different from that already in use in some communities, an interpretation was sought. In a letter to the Veterans Counseling Center in San Francisco on October 25, 1946, Alfred E. Lentz, advisor to the State Department of Education, stated:

The regulation of the State Board of Education does require a higher standard as to the tests than the minimum recommended by the Council. Nevertheless, the regulation of the State Board of Education is controlling and its requirements prevail over the recommendation of the Council.

San Francisco was then placed in the anomalous position of having to require a higher performance for veterans who graduated subsequent to October 25, 1946, than for those who were graduated prior to that date. The veterans who were studied graduated prior to October 25, 1946. If their performance was adequate, then the ef-

forts of the State Board were not only belated but superfluous.

The best single testimony of the nation-wide acceptance of the program is the recently published survey by the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experience of the American Council on Education, *Accreditation Policies of State Departments of Education for the Evaluation of Service Experience and USAFI Examinations*.<sup>5</sup>

#### RESULTS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The average of the G.E.D. graduates who were studied was a man of 23.4 years, who had left high school during the spring semester of 1939 and who, at that time, was in low Grade XI. His average mark in the basic subjects was .71, approximately C-. The mean age was affected by the wide range, since one of the graduates had left school as long ago as the school year of 1915-16. The median age was 21.9, and the median date of withdrawal was spring, 1941. The withdrawal of G.E.D. graduates was concentrated in the war years, and the veterans who were studied were of an age which renders reasonable the assumption that they had achieved no permanent civilian status prior to service in the armed forces and that proper placement was important to readjustment.

The mean and the median number

<sup>4</sup> John A. Howard and Buel F. Enyeart, "Credit for Veterans' Experiences," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXI (October, 1946), 282.

<sup>5</sup> *Accreditation Policies of State Departments of Education for the Evaluation of Service Experience and USAFI Examinations*. Washington: Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences of the American Council on Education, 1946.

of semesters in attendance (4.8) demonstrates a reasonable exposure to secondary-school processes. Only 27 veterans of the 300 studied had had a year or less of high school. The achievement of veterans while they were in high school was concentrated at about the C and D level.

It was found that the veterans compare more favorably with the standardizing groups in the reading examinations than on the achievement examinations. Only in the Test of Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression is the veterans' performance significantly lower. Their median standard score of 46 is equal to percentile ranks of 34 and 27 on national and California norms.

In the Test of General Mathematical Ability, the second achievement examination, the scores of the veterans and the national standardizing group are closest, but yet the efforts of the veterans are significantly higher. The mean score of 52.2 is equal to the percentile rankings of 58 and 59 on the national and state norms.

In the three reading examinations, the performance of the veterans is higher than that of either standardizing group. The highest scores were made in the Tests of Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences. In that test the interquartile range of the veterans includes percentile ranks of from 54 to 88 on the national norms and from 44 to 80 on the California norms. In the Test of Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Studies, the mean standard score (55) approximates the per-

centile norm of 70 on national norms and 58 on state norms. In the Test of Interpretation of Literary Materials, there is close parallel between the California standardizing group and the veterans who were studied. The mean and the median standard scores of the veterans (55.4) are equal to the percentile rank of 50 on the California norms and the interquartile range to the percentiles of 33-76. The veterans' performance on this test was significantly higher than that of the national group, their median score being equal to a percentile rank of 69.

Regarding the performance as a whole, it might be said that the veterans compare favorably in those qualities measured by the G.E.D. tests. If we can accept the basic premise of the authors that the tests are valid measures of the desirable outcomes of general education, then these veterans have shown a higher level of mastery than the high-school graduates on whom the tests were standardized. Growth was objectively measured, but just where, when, and how it took place cannot be definitely demonstrated. It is known, however, that, through service and civilian experiences of a controlled or an uncontrolled nature, these men have enriched their educational backgrounds since leaving school.

In the follow-up study, it was found that veterans are using, and intend to use, their newly gained status as high-school graduates. Replies were received from 120 of the 300 men. Only three of the 120 indicated that they had no plans; 75 stated that they had

already used their diplomas; 85 said that they intend to use them in the future. Of those who had used their new status to overcome qualifying hurdles, 38 were attending school; 27 had used their status to qualify for civil-service examinations; 20 to qualify for new positions; and 5 to improve their present job status. As far as future plans are concerned, 28 of these veteran graduates plan to use their diplomas for future school attendance; 23, to qualify for a new job; 21, for civil-service examinations; and 14, to improve their present job status.

There was considerable overlapping in the replies. Many veterans stated that they had already used their diplomas and intended to use them in other situations. Some of the veterans were in school and were taking civil-service examinations. Some had obtained new jobs and hoped that their new status would make promotion possible.

It was evident from statements, such as "to qualify for a job better than common labor," and "personal satisfaction of having completed a high-school education," that a desire for prestige was an important motivating factor.

Contrary to popular belief, these veterans are using their new status for vocational, rather than educational, purposes. Of the 176 replies, 110 stated that the veterans wanted their diplomas in order to qualify for civil-service positions, for improvement of present job status, or for obtaining a new position. It is not yet known how successful these veterans were in their

new situations. A study of matched pairs, products of the conventional secondary-school program with G.E.D. graduates, and a comparison of their achievement in similar educational and vocational placement would help in the evaluation of this program.

The enthusiastic activity of veteran graduates in the use of their new status might be interpreted as a manifestation of the valuable contribution of the program sponsored by the American Council on Education to the total problem of readjustment and rehabilitation of returning servicemen. In contrast to the confusion that prevailed at the end of the first World War, with schools competing and acting independently in the placement of veterans, there is found no evidence of collapse of standards. The anticipatory efforts of the American Council on Education and the various regional associations produced a laudably sound program of evaluation of educational experiences.

The almost universal acceptance of the program was the first manifestation of its value. Experience in its implementation in cities such as San Francisco testifies to its efficacy and serviceability in a local situation. It is hoped that further studies such as this one will establish the soundness of the program in the proper school placement of veterans and that the performance in school and life situations of the veterans who are the beneficiaries of this program will demonstrate that the educators' contribution to the rehabilitative process of the veteran was a most valuable one.

## SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY AS THE BASIS FOR GUIDANCE

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ANY situation which involves choice among alternatives is a situation in which guidance may be important. The direction in which choice will be influenced depends, of course, on the nature of the "guiding" influence, that is, on the goals and the social philosophy of the persons who control and exercise the influence.

### THE PHILOSOPHY OF GUIDANCE

It may be urged that guidance in a democratic society offers to the individual youth pertinent data as well as training in evaluative methods. On the individual rest both the opportunity and the responsibility for final decisions with regard to educational, vocational, and other basic social choices. Conversely, a system of propaganda and regimentation assigns individuals to particular niches in the prevailing social order. Under this system primary consideration is given to the welfare of the group, and little attention is paid to the interests of the individual.

When viewed in this light, the difference between "guided decisions" and "regimented placements" is largely one of degree. Consequently, if a

program of either guidance or regimentation is to be effective, the persons who formulate and administer the program must have a thorough understanding of the social philosophy prevailing in the society concerned. This writer feels that much of the literature which is intended to aid in developing a democratic American citizenry through guidance overlooks the importance of an underlying philosophy and reflects unawareness of the ramifications of that philosophy.

It may be assumed that a democratic society is so organized as to emphasize the welfare and satisfactions of the average member of the group and that in adult life this average member has an equal right and responsibility with other members of society to determine what will contribute most to his welfare and satisfaction. It is apparent that, under this assumption, each adult generation is confronted with the task of educating and guiding the coming generation to a comprehensive understanding of the bases on which rest long-range human welfare and extended personal satisfaction. Among the reasons for expecting this task to assume increasing pro-

portions in future American society are (1) the increasing complexity of human relationships and, hence, the increasing difficulty in recognizing the ramifications of particular ideals or social philosophies and (2) the overcoming of the limitations of previous generations from the standpoint of approaching the democratic ideal.

It follows, therefore, that one of the most important and one of the most difficult tasks of guidance personnel is associated with the development of a philosophy of life or a system of social values on the part of individual youth.

"Unless an individual develops an aim or purpose or core of values, unless he decides which things in life are most worth while to him and is able to integrate other aspects of life into secondary but supporting positions, he is likely to spend a great deal of time working at cross-purposes and to experience more disappointments than would otherwise be the case." The task of leading a youth to make these judgments is important for guidance counselors for the obvious reason that it is important for the youth who is counseled. The task is difficult for the counselor because of the persistent likelihood that he will unconsciously indoctrinate the youth with a particular philosophy rather than help the youth to develop a philosophy of his own. The established patterns of many guidance counselors cause them to do too much instructing, telling, and directing and not enough "drawing-out" of the individual so that he moves toward his own conclusions.

A fact which should be built into the social philosophy of every youth at an early date is that he is born into a world full of social accretions from past generations and that for him these may constitute either stabilizing anchors or treacherous rocks of shipwreck. He should learn that in any organized society there are large areas of compulsory behavior, in which the group insists on certain actions on the part of the individual, and other areas of permissive behavior, in which the group allows a great deal of individual choice. He should recognize that he is more likely to enjoy life if he charts his own course of behavior around these rocks than if he ignores them. He should realize, too, that the social group will demand from him as an individual a substantial period of conformity before it will allow him to assume any role in changing the pattern to which individuals in general must conform. Guidance should help youth to realize that a person with a particular social philosophy would, if living under one form of social and economic organization, experience certain types of happiness which he would not experience if living under another form of social organization.

A social philosophy which is adequate for modern industrial democracy should certainly emphasize the importance of adjustability to change and to new problems. Economic fluctuations and vocational changes promise to be important facts of life during the next half-century, and, under such conditions, it is important for



youth to have some idea of how they will meet crises or adversity—some idea of possible preparations which might be made individually or collectively, either in the material sense or in the sense of emotional adjustment. Social changes and crises are usually more devastating to the personalities of individuals who have never reflected on the nature of life and its problems enough to have worked out for themselves a pattern of worthwhile living than they are for persons who have worked out such a pattern, with consideration for possible future adjustments.

Major goals of a democratic guidance program should be (1) to discover the aims and philosophy of life which supply orientation to the behavior and outlook of the individual youth and (2) to help him develop a clear picture and a comprehensive evaluation of his aims and philosophy. From this philosophy, long-range educational or vocational orientation and guidance derive much of their meaning, although educational and vocational fields may, from the short-range standpoint, be used as a way of developing and clarifying the youth's philosophy and aims. At this point, probably more than at any other, efforts at guidance fail or prove inadequate; for often the counselor does not give sufficient consideration either to the basic aims and social philosophy of the individual youth or to the "collective philosophy" or mores of the society in which the youth will live.

#### OTHER PHASES OF GUIDANCE

It is, of course, apparent that the aims and philosophy of guidance, as noted in the foregoing paragraphs, could not constitute the whole of an effective guidance program, although the aims and philosophy should afford the orientation in terms of which the more concrete aspects of guidance become significant, both for the community and for the individual. The counselor must have, in his head and in accessible files, an abundance of concrete information regarding the particular educational institutions at which particular youth can best develop; the types of vocational opportunities that exist and the demands and rewards associated with each; the technical and the personality qualifications of individual youth as discovered by various observations and records from the past or by various objective tests and current measuring devices; as well as the social attitudes and prejudices which attach to certain vocational fields, certain population groups, or certain geographical areas. Although there is much inadequacy in these areas, in so far as many present-day counselors and advisers are concerned, the inadequacy here is fairly tangible and the avenues of remedial treatment are fairly clear. Hence these inadequacies are less important, from the standpoint of limitations on long-range development of the type of guidance which is appropriate for youth in an industrial democracy, than are inadequacies in the field of social philosophy.



## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM<sup>1</sup>

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A LARGE proportion of the current writings on the extra-curriculum are reportorial in nature, having as their purpose the description of particular activities in a limited area. Reflecting the world unrest and the "conscious-democracy" ideal of education, many of the activities are portrayed in terms of their contributions to democratic understanding and participation.

Some attempts to analyze the whole extra-curriculum are reported, and, in a few instances, major activities have been incorporated into the "regular" tax-supported curriculum. That this situation is infrequent is implied in the defensive nature of most of the writings about debate and, to a lesser extent, in the areas of dramatics and athletics. It appears that, ills having been recognized in these activities, a cure is sought by burying the patient.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 603 (Bell) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1947, number of the *School Review*, Item 663 (Bolmeier) and Item 666 (Kurtz) in the November, 1947, number of the same journal; and Item 24 (Gaumnitz) and Item 37 (Clark) in the January, 1948, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Proposals to make sponsorship of activities a factor in forming teacher-salary schedules have not been subdued by the nation-wide emphasis on the need of revision of salary schedules in general. A widening awareness and utilization of the fuller educational values of the extra-curriculum are reflected in the tone of many of the writings in this area, but there is need for more widespread study of the contribution and place of the activities comprising the extra-curriculum.

340. ALLEN, CARMEN STONE. "How Much Extra-curricular?" *Parents' Magazine*, XXII (November, 1947), 33, 54-59.

Discusses the reasons for too much participation in extra-curriculum activities; the results; and some means of controlling them, such as point systems, placing activities in the regular school time, and using the guidance counselor for individual advice.

341. ALLEN, JAMES E., JR., and LONSDALE, RICHARD C. "Accounting, Reporting, and Supply Service," *Review of Educational Research*, XVII (April, 1947), 147-54.

The section on "Internal School Accounting" indicates the basic principles of a good system and refers to a current bibliography in this area.

342. ANDERSON, KENNETH E. "A 'Float' Activity Schedule—an Experiment," *School Activities*, XIX (October, 1947), 45-46.  
Describes an experiment in making the extra-curriculum activities a part of the regular school day and the resulting value in implementing the total school objectives. Contains sample forms for pupil-activity registration.
343. BECKMAN, VERNON E. "Let the Debate Go On," *Clearing House*, XXI (February, 1947), 363-64.  
Presents the values of debating as supplemental to the other forms of group communication, particularly in the improvement of analytical, precise thinking, and in the ability to influence results through democratic interaction.
344. BOWLBY, CHARLES L. "A Little 'Extra' for Those Extra-curricular Duties," *Clearing House*, XXII (September, 1947), 20-22.  
Recommends that teachers sponsoring extra-curriculum activities receive extra pay, based on the time required and on a scale derived from average hourly pay received by teachers.
345. BRINN, MORRIS A. "The Function of a Radio Club in the Junior High School," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (February, 1947), 185-88.  
Suggests showing films about radio, building crystal sets, and using the Morse code as appropriate activities for a radio club at the age level of junior high school pupils.
346. BUTTERFIELD, FRANCES WESTGATE. "Citizenship Activities at Ridder Junior-High," *Clearing House*, XXI (May, 1947), 552-54.  
Reviews pupil activities intended to improve citizenship, including such activities as Junior Town Meeting, a stamp club, working on Pan-Americanism, two-party student government, and a drama workshop.
347. CONNOR, M. HELEN. "We Make the High School Annual Interpret Our School," *Nation's Schools*, XL (October, 1947), 30-32.  
Instead of the traditional posed pictures in the high-school annual, action pictures of classes and activities of the school are used, with descriptive legends designed to interpret the work of the school to the children and to the community.
348. "Control of High-School Contests," *School Life*, XXIX (June, 1947), 11-12.  
Considers the problems of pupil contests sponsored by organizations outside the school and describes a plan for controlling high-school contests worked out by a special committee of the Minnesota Association of Secondary-School Principals.
349. CRITSER, LOREN A. "Junior-High-School Extra-curricular Activities," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (February, 1947), 112-13.  
A survey of the extra-curriculum of California schools shows a trend toward including the program in the "regular" schedule. Also finds need for sound financial policies.
350. DANFORD, HOWARD C. "Why—Interscholastic Athletics?" *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, LXXIX (January, 1947), 221-22.  
Answers criticisms that interschool athletics are more exploitation than education. Describes arrangements by which athletics may better serve educational functions, such as expanding the program to include all persons interested by increasing the number of sports and the number of teams in each sport and by elimination of scholastic barriers to participation.
351. ECKHARDT, JOHN W. "Extra Pay for Additional Service," *School Executive*, LXVII (November, 1947), 38-39.  
Presents a scale for equitable salary adjustments for additional services, based on responsibility, time, and school size. Gives detailed instructions for its administration.
352. EVANS, DINA REES. "Give Dramatic Art Its Due," *NEA Journal*, XXXVI (April, 1947), 276-77.

Advocates the intensification of dramatic training and participation as a means of pupil adjustment. Reports the favorable results of a two-year study measuring changes in personality in a group of pupils working in dramatics.

353. FRIEDMAN, IRVING RAYMOND. "School-wide Technique of Play Production," *Clearing House*, XXI (March, 1947), 404-6.

Describes the utilization of the special abilities of the various departments, such as having the scenery and make-up done by the art department, the scenery-building by the shop department, etc., in order to derive the greatest educational advantages from play production.

354. GONZALES, PHILLIP. "Your School Can Have a Yearbook," *School Activities*, XVIII (January, 1947), 152, 158.

Explains methods of reducing costs of a yearbook by the offset method of reproduction and by the school's possession of its own photographic equipment.

355. GRUNER, RAYMOND. "Dramatics Coach: Star Maker or Counselor?" *Clearing House*, XXI (February, 1947), 341-45.

Contrasts theories of "participationist" and "perfectionist" in play-directing. Presents strong case for wide opportunity for pupils to take part.

356. HALL, L. MAUDE. "Seeing the United States from a School Bus," *School Activities*, XVIII (March, 1947), 205-6.

Describes the trip of the Senior class of Elgin (Texas) High School by school bus across the United States.

357. HAYES, MERLE C. "Training Teachers for ECA Sponsorship," *School Activities*, XVIII (May, 1947), 267-68.

Reports the program at Willamette University in Salem, Oregon, to develop student-teacher skill in directing extra-curriculum activities and in recognizing them as educational opportunities rather than as an extra burden.

358. HILLMAN, HUGO E. "Why Debating?" *NEA Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1947), 188-89.

Argues the influence of debating on the lives of several great Americans, analyzes debating into its component parts, and shows how the parts are essential to modern democratic society.

359. JENNINGS, HELEN HALL. "Leadership Training through the Socio-drama," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, X (March, 1947), 112-19.

Explains and gives an example of the socio-drama and its effectiveness in developing attitudes and abilities. A socio-drama involves setting up situations in which the participants assume some particular character or position and respond as would be appropriate under a hypothetical situation.

360. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. "Democracy and the Student Council," *School Activities*, XIX (September, 1947), 3-4.

Suggests the operating principles by which the student council can contribute to education for democracy. The council should have real responsibility and should be freely elected, and its program should be centered in what pupils feel to be important.

361. JOYCE, JOHN F. "S.A.O.: Toward the Renaissance of the Theater in the Secondary School," *English Journal*, XXXVI (November, 1947), 481-86.

Proposes the utilization of the theater on a level more advantageous than the typical Senior play. By careful selection, adaptation, and organization of plays over a period of years, the drama may offer value to the pupils and to the community.

362. KEAST, NAOMI A. "Let the Young People Run Some Concerts!" *School Activities*, XVIII (February, 1947), 173-74.

Suggests that the fullest values can be derived from school concerts if the students make the arrangements.

363. KENNEDY, PHILIP E., FULKERSON, LEATHA, and CHAMBLISS, DEE. "Oak Ridge's Youth Council on the Atomic Crisis," *Clearing House*, XXI (May, 1947), 540-44.
- Portrays, in three parts, a youth council which grew from the rather unique purpose of serving not only to broaden the pupils' experience but also to educate adult groups in many communities.
364. KLOTZ, CELIA E. "It's Everybody's High School Play," *School Activities*, XVIII (May, 1947), 282-84.
- Lists principles for school-play selection. Suggests that casting include all interested persons, since the success of the activity does not lie exclusively in the success of the play but also in the training that it offers.
365. MACAULAY, INES. "Club Gunga Din," *NEA Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1947), 212-13.
- Pictures a youth club, erected and maintained through the combined efforts of pupils, school officials, and the community. The completed club is maintaining many activities, including dramatics, band, softball, and numerous clubs.
366. MCCLELLAND, SAMUEL D. "The Function of Debating," *English Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1947), 91-93.
- Recommends that debating be removed from its present disrepute, be divested of many of the malpractices that have been associated with it, and be used to supplement the more general forum and public meeting.
367. MALLINSON, GEORGE GREISON. "Sponsoring the Science Club," *School Activities*, XIX (October, 1947), 49-51, 64.
- Designed to help science teachers, particularly new ones, understand how to organize and guide a science club, this article explains the development, purposes, and methods of such a club.
368. MERRICK, NELLIE L., and SEYFERT, WARREN C. "School Publications as a Source of Desirable Group Experiences," *School Review*, LV (January, 1947), 21-28.
- Describes a comprehensive program of school publications, thoughtfully developed to meet the basic educational values for the group and for the individuals producing and using the publications.
369. MINER, MELISSA. "Parade of Extracurricular Activities Assembly," *School Activities*, XVIII (May, 1947), 297-98.
- An assembly in the fall presents aspects of all the extra-curriculum activities in order that the pupils may choose those in which they wish to participate. The assembly was presented also to the parent-teachers' association to demonstrate pupil activities to the community.
370. MOORE, LESLIE W. "Student Council Election," *School Activities*, XIX (September, 1947), 18, 38.
- How training is given for participation in the democratic process is shown in this description of student-council elections which use the techniques of adult campaigns, such as campaign managers, platforms, and speech-making.
371. "National Contests for Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (February, 1947), 136-37.
- Lists the national pupil contests that have been approved by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals because they have educational values which outweigh their commercial aspects.
372. "Pay for Extracurricular Work," *Clearing House*, XXI (March, 1947), 399.
- Presents a brief work sheet for computing salary payments for various types of extra-curriculum teacher responsibilities.
373. ROBINSON, THOMAS EDMOND. "Athletics: Are They a Privilege?" *Clearing House*, XXI (February, 1947), 330-33.
- Suggests penetrating questions regarding the function of the athletic program in its relation to the development of the pupils and indicates that, by arbitrary scholastic eligibility rules, schools are barring pupils from activities in which they could succeed. Advocates readjustment of these rules.

374. ROGERS, ETHEL. "Publicity Club: Its Fingers Are in Many Pies," *Clearing House*, XXI (May, 1947), 555.  
Describes how pupils' handling of the publicity phase of a public-relations program gave the young people fuller knowledge of the school's objectives and made improvements in the school's publicity.
375. RYAN, H. H. "Imperative Need Number 8," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (March, 1947), 105-14.  
Shows how extra-curriculum activities, such as radio clubs, athletics, instruction in etiquette, etc., may serve to develop the worthy use of leisure time.
376. SCOTT, MARIGOLD. "The Student Co-operative Association of Virginia," *School Activities*, XVIII (February, 1947), 184-85.  
Describes how student associations of the various schools joined in a federation which seeks to improve student activities by pooling experiences, by exchanging programs, and by practicing democratic procedures.
377. SLOAN, JEWELL. "Launching a School Year Book," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, X (March, 1947), 129-30.  
Describes assemblies, posters, and other phases of a publicity campaign designed to promote financial support for the year-book.
378. SMITH, HENRY P. "The Relationship between Scores on the Bell Adjustment Inventory and Participation in Extra-curriculum Activities," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVIII (January, 1947), 11-16.  
Presents the findings of a careful experiment which show a high correlation between participation in extra-curriculum activities and social adjustment among pupils.
379. SMITH, MARY WINTERS. "How an Assembly Committee Grew," *School Activities*, XVIII (May, 1947), 277-80, 300.  
Describes how, through a formulation of standards for their work, a student-assembly committee developed from indulging in "gripes" sessions to constructive planning. An improvement in general student morale also resulted.
380. SPIEGLER, CHARLES G. "It's the Democratic Way," *Parents' Magazine*, XXII (March, 1947), 26-27, 148-50.  
Describes an "Action through Correspondence Club" which has as its motto "Do Your Fighting by Writing." Students and parents discuss questions of public interest and write individually to the person who can make their opinions operative. A realistic approach to democratic participation seems to have resulted.
381. STOUT, MINARD W. "The Cost of Extra-class Activities," *School Review*, LV (March, 1947), 161-65.  
Presents a careful study of costs and expenditures for extra-curriculum activities in schools of various sizes. Includes a bibliography.
382. THOMPSON, NELLIE Z. "Vs. Athletics: The Camel's Nose Is under Our Tent," *Clearing House*, XXI (March, 1947), 419-20.  
Warns of the danger of emphasizing athletics at the expense of other school activities, in terms of both money and time.
383. THOMPSON, NORA B. "A Latin-American Club in High School," *English Journal*, XXXVI (May, 1947), 260-61.  
Describes the activities of a Latin-American Club which was designed to foster interracial understanding, including the purchase of relevant books and conducting correspondence. Includes a list of appropriate books.
384. VAN POOL, G. M. "Publicity for the Student Council," *School Activities*, XIX (September, 1947), 6-10.  
Presents a description of devices to "glamorize" the student council, including many practices in public relations. Council members were given certificates, badges, desks in a private council office, and public installation in a general school assembly.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Unseen Harvests: A Treasury of Teaching.*

Edited by CLAUDE M. FUESS and EMORY S. BASFORD. New York: Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. xxii+678. \$5.00.

Recollections of school experiences are the source of mixed emotions in the lives of literate people, including those of the present generation who are the privileged graduates of the well-managed and luxuriously equipped institutions that stand as the fairest measure of cultural progress in a land of freedom and plenty. The school of one's childhood or youth is, in retrospection, the mirror of both happiness and distress, pride and humiliation, freedom and restraint, as these varying types of experience are identified in the happenings of earlier years. It is a familiar fact, moreover, that men of many generations have taken occasion to record these impressions of schools and schooling, sometimes with the deliberate purpose of influencing the attitudes or practices of contemporaries, sometimes in the form of casual observations on the fortunes or privations of the individual or of the class in society with which the observer was concerned. The editors of *Unseen Harvests* have assembled a rich collection of such writings in a volume that furnishes inspiration, information, or entertainment, according to the interest or the need of an intelligent reader.

From the works of over a hundred authors, whether famed or scarcely known, about 150 selections were chosen as representative of the most interesting or the most useful contributions to the world's literature on the teachers of different civilizations and the nature and the purposes of the teaching process.

The scope and the appeal of the selections available in this anthology may be denoted by sampling either the authors or titles which are conveniently listed in the index. Using only the first letter of the alphabet as the basis of sampling of authorship, the list includes selections from the writings of Franklin P. Adams, Henry Adams, Matthew Arnold, Roger Ascham, and St. Augustine, in addition to three anonymous titles descriptive of school practices in medieval times. Variety of theme is indicated by the following titles found on the last page of the Index: "Old School-Day Romances" (Riley); "At School and at Home" (Thackeray); "The Arts of Teaching and Being Taught" (Mark Van Doren); "A Searching of School Masters" (H. G. Wells); "The Aims of Education" (Whitehead); "What Is a College For?" (Woodrow Wilson).

The volume serves well the variety of purposes which motivated the laborious research and the thoughtful appraisal of available materials that resulted in its publication. It will be read with continuing interest by laymen who are interested in the progress of education as well as by members of the teaching profession.

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BROADY, KNUTE O., BROADY, LOIS PEDERSEN, and WESTOVER, ADA STIDWORTHY, *Orientation and Guidance for High School Pupils*. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska, 1947. Pp. viii+320. \$3.50.

The next few years will see increased emphasis, in educational circles, on the life-



adjustment problems of youth. Evidence of this is the recently formed United States Office of Education Commission on Life Adjustment Education which is made up of educators from nine major educational organizations. Dr. John W. Studebaker announced that this Commission has undertaken the task of studying the life-adjustment needs of youth. In individual schools and school systems, further evidence is seen in the formation of orientation classes and units. These classes are designed primarily to aid the high-school pupil in making adjustments to high-school life and to plan sensibly for his own future.

There has, undoubtedly, been a dearth of material for use in these classes. For this reason, teachers and counselors will welcome a new book, *Orientation and Guidance for High School Pupils*, by Broady, Broady, and Westover.

As the authors explain, the book is written for boys and girls who are in their first year of high school, and it is adaptable to either a semester's or a year's work. Based on the premise that the pupil needs both orientation to his new environment and guidance for the future, the book covers the following units: "Make Yourself an Effective Worker," "The Good Citizen In and Out of School," "The Good Citizen and Safety," "Schools of the Past and Present," "Opportunities in Your Own Community," "Our World of Work," "Finding Yourself," and "You Choose a Vocation."

More specifically, such topics as study habits, manners in and out of school, personal appearance, religion, entertaining, safety, organization of the school, and choosing a job are included. In general, the major problems that high-school pupils face are covered. Some omissions, however, are evident. For instance, if a course of this kind is to answer adequately the needs of pupils, such topics as boy-girl relations, getting along with parents, and making friends should certainly have full coverage. In addition, since self-understanding is basic to good adjustment, a more adequate treatment of

this fundamental problem would have been valuable to the student-personnel worker and to the teachers. Certainly an orientation course could well provide the "teen-ager" with some idea of the basic elements of human relations and psychology. For many young people, this course will be the only opportunity for an educational experience of this type.

Aimed at high-school readers, the book does not often miss its goal with respect to approach and treatment. Occasionally, however, the young reader is left with an unexplained generalization or conclusion.

Of special value to both pupil and teacher is the arrangement of each unit into three clearly defined sections. The first section is an introduction or overview, and the second, or main section, called "Reading and Practice," includes assignments to be carried out by the pupil and recorded in his course notebook. The assignment might be a study of the extra-curriculum activities of the school or the writing of a "thank-you" letter. The third section is designed for class work and consists of group-recitation assignments, thus offering an excellent opportunity for both discussion and valuable group co-operation.

The final test of any book, of course, is its effectiveness. Teachers and administrators will be pleased to learn from the authors that those schools which used the materials while they were still in syllabus form noted improved "conduct and attitude of the pupils in their school" (p. vi).

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*Continuity in Liberal Education—High School and College.* Report of the Fourth Annual Conference Held by the Stanford School of Humanities, May 23-26, 1946. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1947. Pp. x+94. \$2.00.

The Report of the Fourth Annual Conference held by the Stanford School of Human-

ties, entitled *Continuity in Liberal Education—High School and College*, has recently been published by Stanford University Press. The conference was attended by some forty California college and high-school teachers and had a twofold purpose:

First, to analyze the contribution high-school courses in English, foreign languages, history and social studies, mathematics, and science can make to the liberal education of *all* high-school students, terminal, as well as those preparing for college; and, second, to explore the relationships between the study of those subjects in secondary and higher education [p. vi].

A large portion of the book is devoted to committee reports and discussions pertaining to specific subject-matter fields. This material is followed by a five-page section, "General Statements," which will be of interest to secondary-school and college teachers who are trying to provide an effective liberal education for young people. Some of the generalizations which grew out of the committee reports and subsequent discussions are:

Extra-curricular activities are an important part of the student's educational experiences.

University and college academic departments have often been far too indifferent to the problem of training high-school teachers.

The training of all high-school and college teachers should include a liberal education, special competence in subjects to be taught, and sound pedagogical training.

The entire life of any school or college should be a practical experience in democracy in action.

Care should be taken to achieve not only integration of the subject matter within each of

the disciplines, but also articulation among the disciplines.

In planning sequences and continuities between high school and college in specific fields . . . it would be desirable to establish continuation committees . . . made up of representatives of high-school teachers, college instructors in the disciplines or groups of disciplines, faculties of departments of education, independent research scholars, and high-school and college administrators.

Every instructor, whether in high school or college, should consider himself a citizen, a teacher, and a scholar [pp. 89-90].

There were other generalizations that the reviewer could not accept quite so wholeheartedly as those presented above. For example, the Stanford group believed that "some knowledge of foreign language is an essential part of a liberal education" (p. 92). This claim might be defended were it not for the fact that time is limited.

By and large, however, the agreements reached at this Stanford Conference are forward looking and indicate what can be done when college, university, and secondary-school teachers work together to develop good educational programs. There is little in the volume that indicates how the principles agreed on can be implemented. It probably is true that one of the early steps in building a good curriculum involves reaching verbal agreement on important principles. The report of the Stanford Conference represents substantial progress at this level.

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## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

*Audio-visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies.* Edited by WILLIAM H. HARTLEY. Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.

Washington 6: National Council for the Social Studies, 1947. Pp. xiv + 214. \$2.00 paper, \$2.50 cloth.

COYLE, GRACE L. *Group Experience and Democratic Values.* New York 22: Woman's Press, 1947. Pp. 186. \$2.75.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and

- BACON, FRANCIS L. *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1948 (third edition). Pp. xii+690. \$4.00.
- Encyclopedia of Vocational Guidance*. Edited by OSCAR J. KAPLAN. Vol. I, pp. xxii+722; Vol. II, pp. 723-1422. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1948. \$18.50.
- Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*. Prepared by the Society's Committee, RUTH STRANG (chairman). Edited by NELSON B. HENRY. Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago 37: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. x+280. \$3.50 cloth, \$2.75 paper.
- LOWENFELD, VIKTOR. *Creative and Mental Growth: A Textbook on Art Education*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. xiv+304. \$4.50.
- McLURE, WILLIAM PAUL. *The Effect of Population Sparsity on School Cost*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 929. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. xii+64. \$2.10.
- MULES, MARY, and BUTCHERS, A. G. A. *Bibliography of New Zealand Education*. Revised by H. C. McQUEEN. Educational Research Series No. 29. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1947. Pp. 112.
- PETERS, CHARLES C. *Teaching High School History and Social Studies for Citizenship Training: The Miami Experiment in Democratic, Action-centered Education*. Coral Gables 34, Florida: University of Miami Bookstore, 1948. Pp. 192. \$1.00.
- Reading in the High School and College*. Prepared by the Yearbook Committee, WILLIAM S. GRAY (chairman). Edited by NELSON B. HENRY. Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago 37: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. x+318+xlx. \$3.50 cloth, \$2.75 paper.
- SPITZER, HERBERT F. *The Teaching of Arithmetic*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1948. Pp. viii+398. \$3.00.
- STRANG, RUTH. *Reporting to Parents*. Practical Suggestions for Teaching, No. 10. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. x+106. \$1.50.
- WOOD, BEN D., and HAEFNER, RALPH. *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth*. New York 10: Silver Burdett Co., 1948. Pp. viii+536.

#### BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BLACKMORE, RICHARD DODRIDGE. *Lorna Doone*. Adapted by MABEL DODGE HOLMES and edited by HELEN RANDOLPH. New York 11: College Entrance Book Co., 1948. Pp. xiv+320. \$1.15.
- FOARD, BETTY. *Wise Spending for Better Living*. Gainesville, Florida: Project in Applied Economics, College of Education, University of Florida, 1947. Pp. 72. \$0.35.
- MORANG, ALFRED. *Adventure in Drawing*. Denver, Colorado: Sage Books, Inc., 1947. Pp. 54. \$1.75.
- News of the Nation: A Newspaper History of the United States*. Edited by SYLVAN HOFFMAN and C. HARTLEY GRATTAN. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. \$2.16.
- PADGETT, ELSIE. *The Case of the Whispering Class*. Gainesville, Florida: Project in Applied Economics, College of Education, University of Florida, 1947. Pp. 56. \$0.35.
- SCOTT, SIR WALTER. *Ivanhoe*. Adapted by JOSEPH C. GAINSBURG and edited by MARY H. HUTCHISON. New York 11: College Entrance Book Co., 1948. Pp. xviii+266. \$1.15.
- STEINBERG, SAMUEL, and KNOWLTON, DANIEL C. *The American Way in Community Life*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. viii+408. \$1.92.
- WARRINER, JOHN E. *Handbook of English*. The English Workshop Series. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1948. Pp. xiv+498. \$1.60.

## PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

- By Way of Introduction: A Book List for Young People.* Compiled by a Joint Committee of the American Library Association, the National Education Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947 (revised). Pp. 144.
- Cooperation in the Americas.* Report of the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation, July 1946-June 1947. Department of State Publication 2971, International Information and Cultural Series 1. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1948. Pp. vi+146. \$0.40.
- DURRANCE, CHARLES L., JR., JONES, L. E., and OTHERS. *School-Community Cooperation for Better Living.* Gainesville, Florida: Project in Applied Economics, College of Education, University of Florida, 1947 (tentative edition). Pp. 240. \$0.35.
- Education for Responsible Living.* Report of the Forty-second Annual Convention. Winnipeg, Manitoba: Manitoba Educational Association, 1947. Pp. 134.
- Elementary Education: A Ten-Year Program of Action for Texas—Goals for 1957.* 1947 Yearbook of the Texas Association of School Administrators. San Marcos, Texas: Texas Association of School Administrators (Fred Kaderli, % Public Schools), 1947. Pp. vi+42. \$0.50.
- "For Better Understanding." A Manual for Cultural Interchange between Schools of Europe and Their Sponsoring Schools and Other Friends in the United States. Prepared by the Committee on Cultural Relations Manual. New York 10: Save the Children Federation, Inc., 1947. Pp. 9 (processed).
- GAGE, N. L. *Scaling and Factorial Design in Opinion Poll Analysis.* Studies in Higher Education LXI. Further Studies in Attitudes, Series X. Lafayette, Indiana: Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, 1947. Pp. vi+88. \$1.25.
- Gold Star List of American Fiction.* Syracuse, New York: Syracuse Public Library 1948. Pp. 52. \$0.60.
- Guidebook for Common Practices in School Work.* Minneapolis, Minnesota: Willard E. Goslin, Superintendent of Public Schools, 1948. Pp. viii+142.
- Higher Education for All.* A Radio Discussion by T. R. McCONNELL, EARL J. McGRATH, and LOUIS WIRTH. University of Chicago Round Table, No. 514. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Round Table, 1948. Pp. 30. \$0.10.
- Higher Education for American Democracy.* A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Vol. IV, *Staffing Higher Education.* Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. x+64. \$0.25.
- Occupational Abstract No. 109, *Meteorologist* by MARGARET M. DUNBAR and MARY BRILLA. New York 3: Occupational Index, Inc. (New York University, Washington Square), 1948.
- Our Air Age: A General High School Course on Aviation. Unit II, Aircraft Structures and Problems of Flight.* Prepared by the Staff of the Bureau of Aviation Education. Sacramento 14, California: California State Department of Education, 1947. Pp. iv+68. \$0.50.
- Puppetry in the Curriculum: A Manual on Puppets, Marionettes, Shadow Figures, and Masks for the Elementary and Junior High School Years.* Curriculum Bulletin, 1947-48 Series, No. 1. Brooklyn 2: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1947. Pp. xii+172.
- SHAFFER, ROBERT H. *The Effect of English Deficiency upon a Student's Adjustment in College.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXIV, No. 1. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Service, Indiana University, 1948. Pp. 34. \$0.50.
- Still Unfinished: Our Educational Obligation to America's Children.* Report of a study conducted by the Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University. Washington 6: National Education Association, 1948. Pp. 32.

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